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ABSTRACT

The document evaluates present international developments in the area of leave of absence during working hours for educational purposes. Part 1, Educational Leave of Absence: A Comparative Analysis, contains five chapters: (1) Towards a New Right to Education, discussing recurrent education, the world of work, the International Labor Organization, and the world of education; (2) Educational Leave of Absence: The European Situation, examining principles and objectives, adopted legislation, length of leave, types of training, and financing mechanisms; (3) Educational Leave of Absence: The Situation in the United States, discussing collective bargaining, educational leave, negotiated agreements, funds, family education, and conclusions; (4) future Implications of Educational Leave: The Nature of the Problem in Europe and the United States, examining new social mechanisms, the gap between labor and education, financing and relationships within the firms, and social policy; (5) Summary, discussing individual rights, financing mechanisms, and training institutions and worker participation. Part 2, Country Studies, examines educational leave in Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and Yugoslavia. Appended material (from the International Labor conference, 1974) includes texts of the adopted convention and recommendations and tables of the structure of the economically active population in the countries examined. (LH)

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DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE

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1976

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PREFACE

The expansion of initial education experienced by most countries over the last thirty years has not prevented the increase of measures and institutions aimed at improving adult education. This increase was a response to two areas of concern: on the one hand it offered those who wanted it the possibility of acquiring an education they had been unable to obtain at school; on the other it aimed, within the framework of industrial policy, at the adaptation of the skills of the labour force to rapidly changing processes of production.

Thus there came to exist what still exists in many countries, namely the conjunction of opportunities for further education with the use of training as a new factor in production. In reality, however, these opportunities for training were restricted to out-of-work hours and only those most motivated were likely to take advantage of them, sometimes at the expense of their social and family life. In these conditions, the aim of greater social equality through adult education was to some extent frustrated in that it was precisely those who had received an insufficient education in their youth who were least inclined to re-enter the system, for they associated it inevitably with school.

Based on initiatives by progressive employers and under pressure from trade unions, combined with some government action, leave during working hours for educational purposes has now been accepted as a matter of private initiative and public policy in many countries, particularly in Europe. During its 1974 conference. the ILO adopted a Convention and a Recommendation in favour of the formal establishment and general availability of the right to such educational leave.

The introduction of such a right specifically for training purposes is an important stage in the implementation of recurrent education because it activates the principle of alternation between periods of work and education. Furthermore, the principle of educational leave carries with it also the beginning of a profound change of attitude towards vocational activity. As we have seen, some advanced countries have recognised the individual's right to educational leave which - under certain conditions - is exercised during working hours. This right is also generally accompanied by maintenance of salary and in appropriate circumstances the "right to return", conditions which are clearly desirable in many instances. Education is thus being progressively integrated into working life, while achieving a greater independence as its programmes become less limited to vocational training.

The relative recency of existing measures suggests that the results already obtained may be misleading. But it certainly seems that a real impetus has been generated although its future impact is still difficult to judge, even in the medium term.

The aim of this report is to attempt to evaluate present developments in the sphere of educational leave and their implications. A grant from the National Institute of Education (USA) enabled a comparative study to be carried out in six countries, with the aid of Madame Blanchez (Belgium), M. Westergaard (Denmark), M. Pagnoncelli (Italy), M. Shop (Netherlands), M. Andersson (Sweden) and M. Bezdanov (Yugoslavia). This study has been extended to include France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United Kingdom thanks to country studies compiled under the direction of Mrs. Nevzer Stacey. Finally, the scope of the analysis has been broadened by a special chapter on the United States contributed by Professor Herbert Levine.

J.R. GASS
Director,
Centre for Educational Research and Innovation

Part One

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Chapter I

TOWARDS A NEW RIGHT OF EDUCATION

Although very few countries have yet committed themselves to organising recurrent education, the concept is sufficiently well understood by now to need no lengthy explanation here. While a wide variety of measures have been taken to foster adult education, scarcely any thought has been given to the "recurrent" nature of training. The term itself implies not only a periodic return to training activities but, above all, the merging of both original and subsequent training into a comprehensive plan in which institutions, programmes and methods are all taken into account. All too frequently, the tendency is for adult education to be saddled with the task of remedying functional shortcomings in the original system without really questioning the system itself.

However that may be, if there is to be any change in the existing system in which the benefits of training are confined to adults who are able to make considerable sacrifices affecting their social and family life, as well as their health and work, the future of recurrent education will depend on the scope workers are offered for undergoing training during working hours. In this regard, educational leave of absence, which is becoming increasingly widespread in many countries, is an important and even essential factor in enabling adults to exercise their right to education.

Nevertheless, while educational leave of absence is a means of consolidating and developing permanent training, its significance goes much further. The discussions prior to the introduction of the system and the terms on which educational leave is granted are such that the legal provisions governing it are an assertion of the right to education - a right that is only partially recognised by some, is disputed by others and is constantly evolving, as will be seen. These legal, financial and organisational provisions represent the material background against which the social factors involved in the problem of training play their parts. If, therefore, the importance, role and significance of educational leave of absence are to be properly assessed, the problem has to be situated in the broader context of the changes that are taking place in the worlds of training and labour.

A. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND RECURRENT EDUCATION

The concept of recurrent education stems from the idea that initial full-time education, working life and retirement should all form part of a continuous process and that the individual, regardless of his position in the age-scale, needs to achieve a permanent balance between his working, training and leisure-time activities if he is to express himself fully and independently. Recurrent education "implies major changes in socio-political and economic institutions, but attributes to education an instrumental role in facilitating these changes."(1) If it is viewed in that light, recurrent education lays itself open to a number of risks.

The first risk is that of its being confined to its occupational aspects. This approach is very attractive because the concept was evolved at a time when the trend was for many firms to set up on-the-job training facilities so as to enable their personnel to adapt their skills to new technological processes. Similarly, during the nineteen-sixties and early seventies, governments took steps to develop training facilities providing marketable qualifications for such categories as the unemployed, young people and women wishing to start working again after an interruption. Such a limitation would not bring about any change in the social inequalities which recurrent education aims at combating and which are not confined to the occupational life of the individual but affect his entire relationship with society.

The second risk lies in the "illusion of teaching": the belief that if education is changed, the order of things and of institutions will likewise be changed. As S. Lourie has put it: "How can we regenerate education, which is only an instrument, a tool of change, if the object of that change - namely man in society - is subject to constraints of a kind which makes the possibility of resolving them with the instrument of regenerated education an illusion".(2) This danger is also stressed by Illich(3), whose objections to recurrent education systems can be summarised as follows:

a) Permanent education institutionalises lifelong schooling and is therefore open to the same criticisms. Furthermore, it is wrongly credited with the ability to transmit knowledge which the original system proved incapable of disseminating.

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1) Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning, CERI/OECD, 1973.

2) Perspective: UNESCO Review, Vol. II, No. 4, Winter 1974: "Education and Society, the Problems of Change".

3) Le Monde de l'Education, No. 2, January 1975.

b) Unrest in schools prevents them from fulfilling their role of ensuring "social reproduction", so that the function is left to permanent education.

c) The widespread propagation of the myth of the second or even third chance has the effect of neutralising social demands by diverting contestation away from the school context.

d) There is an attempt to spread the belief that employment problems are really bound up with training.

According to Illich, the outcome is the lasting alienation of man, whose determination to fight for social justice gives way to the vain hope that, with the help of permanent education, "the cards will be perpetually re-dealt".

It is difficult to refute this argument because the objections already mentioned represent the risks which any system of recurrent education has to contend with. It is paradoxical to claim - unless there is a genuine revolution in teaching - that adults can be given general education that they were unable to obtain from their school-days. It is all too easy to claim that the lack of motivation displayed by young people is responsible for the unsuitability of teaching. That is only a pretext. When they reach adulthood, workers from underprivileged family backgrounds will, with some justification, mistake the training they are offered for what the schools that rejected them were supposed to provide. It is true that the existence of permanent education can provide a justification for undertaking reforms of the education system based on a single approach to teaching which each child would follow in accordance with its own abilities and at its own pace. Adult education would then be expected to right the wrongs which "liberal and egalitarian teaching" would have had a hand in causing. It is also true that, in national planning, labour imbalances have been used far too often as an explanation for economic problems and that attempts have been made to reduce the gap by means of social measures among which training activities hold a privileged place.

All these risks are very real, but it is a quality of any political venture to be ambivalent. Every society tries to protect itself, to defend its privileges and hence to limit the changes that might make the education system call existing social patterns, into question. In that respect, the objectives assigned to recurrent education and the specific objective of reducing social inequalities represent no more than a token display of intentions in many cases. On the road Illich has taken, social change is not considered possible without socio-political revolution.

In point of fact, the principal argument against this radical criticism is to be found in the emergence of educational leave, i.e. in the individual's newly acknowledged right, secured as a result of negotiations resolving social conflicts. It is because social policy is the outcome of the interplay of opposing forces that permanent education need not be alienating. In practice, in countries where this right is established, workers' trade-union organisations come into conflict with professional organisations over the manner in which it is exercised. The fact that the system is open to change is clearly shown by the discussions taking place in many countries over the relative importance of general education versus vocational training, the introduction of paid educational leave of absence and trade union control over the training organisations.

The real problem is that of knowing how and by whom the system will be supervised. There is a widespread tendency in all countries to promote and extend contractual arrangements between employers and their employees, and educational leave is no exception to the rule, even though the identity of views is not complete in some cases. From this standpoint, Illich's analysis does not take account of the strategies of various organisations operating in the social field and his argument that it is necessary "to expose the strangulation to which trade union and political organisations are being subjected because of the struggles which they are no longer capable of leading ... alienated as they are through having collaborated with industry in order to strengthen the worker's status, propagate the myth that the road to salvation is through the power of knowledge and thereby consolidate the imperialism which the capitalists of knowledge hold over the industrialised masses", bears no relation to a situation where the trend is increasingly towards discussions on an equal footing.

If further proof were needed, we have only to refer to the stated aims of the Italian trade unions in their negotiations with employers' organisations on the introduction of educational leave of absence. These are as follows:

- the definition of a minimum standard of knowledge common to all workers, by reference to the standard achieved at the end of compulsory schooling;
- the introduction of increasingly higher cultural standards for the working class;
- the transformation of the educational system into a system meeting the needs of workers as a whole;
- the improvement of workers' ability to understand and supervise production processes and their end-purpose;
- the definition of a new conception of working life, based on a wide range of knowledge such that a specific job will only involve the mobilisation, at a given moment in time, of a particular skill coming within a much broader cognitive framework;

- the transformation of the existing organisation of the work process in order to abolish its piecemeal and alienating features.

B. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND THE WORLD OF WORK

In addition to their function of fitting everybody out with a minimum cultural background, schools are supposed to provide everybody with a qualification level that can be used in working life. Since schooling culminates in a specific form of training or in no training at all, which amounts to the same thing, it is regarded as a system which, in historical terms, makes it possible to obtain a job.

In this context, the practical aspects of planning educational development amount to a search for a means of rationalising the pattern of school education and of striking a balance between the levels of training attained and the jobs that need to be filled for economic development.

Experience has shown that, in the natural process of the educational system, training and employment have failed to adjust to each other. In the end, the adjustment was brought about through the specific training systems evolved by employers. The difficulties involved in making such adjustments cheaply and accurately can largely be explained by the fact that the two worlds of school and work are sealed off from each other, by the speed at which technological changes occur and by the economy's responsiveness to cyclical fluctuations.

More fundamentally, however, the nature of the problem is based on the idea that an unequivocal relationship is supposed to exist between a "job description" and a job, and hence that it ought to be possible to make a given level of training correspond to a particular job. Recent research on qualifications shows, firstly, that the job description concept is becoming increasingly imprecise and, secondly, that many different kinds of training, all having some interchangeable features in common, may correspond to a particular job.

For some considerable time, therefore, employers have been going ahead on their own initiative in providing occupational training for their staff and have indeed granted educational leave to some of their employees so as to enable them to undergo training organised by the employers themselves. Similarly, many countries have launched training exercises either to improve the workings of the labour market or to make it easier for certain categories of the population to be re-integrated into working life. Most of these measures were taken with specific socio-economic objectives in view and did not, in fact, impinge on the employers' acknowledged right to use their personnel as they see fit within the limits of existing legislation and agreements.

In short, the concept of educational leave arose from a concern to provide workers with increased protection against the hazards of working life. The preamble to the French law of 18th December, 1963 on the Fonds National de l'Emploi clearly illustrates this concern:

> A policy of social progress must, among other things, aim at guarding workers against insecurity of employment. While the nation offers citizens ever-increasing protection in other areas, it is not proper for wage-earners to be exposed to the danger of losing a job on which the subsistence of their family depends, for reasons beyond their control. This danger is particularly unpleasant in periods of economic expansion. How is it possible to accept the fact that those people whose efforts are the prime factor in the growth of production should also be the first victims of the industrial and commercial changes that are necessarily attendant upon such growth?

Viewed in this light, educational leave ought to become the acknowledged right of the worker and should be determined and organised through collective bargaining between the different social partners. As such, it would lead to far-reaching changes in labour relationships, changes that could be construed as either limiting the powers of the employer or increasing those of the workers. The fact is that the aims pursued in respect of educational leave and adult education in general differ according to the socio-political protagonists involved, i.e. the state, the trade unions and the employers' organisations. At a given moment in time, the regulations in force are the reflection of a compromise or a precarious balance which is constantly subjected to the pressures exerted by social groups who are themselves acting in accordance with their overall socio-political strategy. The analysis of a sector as limited as that of educational leave may accordingly appear to be something of a "shot in the dark", at least as regards any attempt to account for the developments that have taken place. It is quite likely, for instance, that the measures we are now familiar with would have been very different and the political priorities in respect of employment would not have been the same, had Europe not experienced the substantial economic growth of recent years.

But another, no less important, development is taking shape. For a long time, workers' demands were limited to wage claims. Then, gradually, without the "income" issue losing its importance, discussions moved on to problems of security of employment and social benefits. At the present time, a further dimension has been added in the shape of representations about working conditions. The qualitative aspects of the work process are being increasingly questioned and demands for the right to training come under this heading. It is quite conceivable that the day will come when this right will be assimilated into the existing "social benefits" that apply to the worker himself or to the members of his family.

This concern with improving working conditions or, in other words, with ensuring the personal development of human beings in their occupational activities is situated in a very different economic context from that pertaining in the 1960s. On the one hand, there is an increase in unemployment to which skilled workers are not immune and, on that count, collective bargaining aimed at maintaining the level of employment is liable to work to the detriment of young people by limiting the job opportunities open to them. On the other, the growth of employment in years to come is likely to depend, for the most part, on the tertiary sectors where the qualification concept is rather less relevant than in the industrial sectors. Hence, to an even greater extent than in the past, it may be difficult to state job requirements in terms of training requirements and therefore to provide any firm guidance for initial training systems.

Finally, another factor, which is bound up with the development of production processes, also comes into play. In the first instance, "it is necessary to stress the growing intensity of the effect of capital, which is still an essential prerequisite for increased productivity and for reducing the overall labour burden which the final demand imposes on the population."(1) It need scarcely be recalled that this tendency is accentuated by the inflationary climate prevailing in most countries which prompts employers to reduce their labour overheads. Secondly, although modern production methods require large numbers of technical staff and skilled workers, the number of unskilled workers remains the same or even increases.

> Those people who stress the growing need for trained personnel tend to concentrate on the technician/engineer category or found their arguments on the technical changes and the adaptation of labour they require. We, on the contrary, should like to give consideration to those workmen and white-collar workers who have piecemeal and repetitive jobs. All efforts to organise the work process are directed towards making their jobs as commonplace as possible, depriving them of any responsibility and making them interchangeable. Any attempt to train

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1) The Insertion of Youth into Working Life, OECD (document).

them at this late stage is in total contradiction with the tenets of business organisation and the all-pervasive picture our society has of work. To judge from the optimistic comments that have been made, the law of 1971 on vocational training is tailored to the logic of the existing system because it helps supply all the labour needed with requisite flexibility, enables a reasonable dialogue to be established between the people who come to describe their training needs and the employers, and fits into a widespread movement of general promotion. It is, however, something contrary, the paradox of training being within everybody's grasp, that has to be stressed: either the legislation on permanent education will benefit those people who already enjoy the privileges of knowledge or else it will benefit everybody, in which case the price to be paid will be a challenge to the entire present-day system of production.(1)

All these factors will provide educational leave systems with an impact that will make itself felt in years to come. Socio-political relations will determine whether developments will or will not run along two similar paths. The first would involve broadening the scope of educational leave to include non-vocational training, while the second, which is in fact bound up with the first, would involve the increasingly clearcut assertion of personal initiative in making a choice from the training available and in deciding how to use educational leave.

It is clear, however, that the social policy which is now taking shape and of which educational leave of absence is one of the many and varied aspects, is moving towards a far-reaching re-organisation of the structures of employment and production via the conventional dialectic of conflict and collective bargaining.

It is impossible to tell whether developments will be made any easier as a result of the breakthrough of workers' education into the corporate existence of firms, its independent stand in relation to employers' labour policies or its diversified range, or whether its origins in a type of socio-political problem that is not governed by the logic of economics means that training ultimately brings about far-reaching changes or serious disturbances.

C. RECOGNITION OF THE RIGHT TO EDUCATIONAL LEAVE BY THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

Under pressure from trade unions, the International Labour Organisation began, in 1965, to discuss the question of educational

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1) Guy Roustang: "A-t-on besoin de gens formés?", Esprit, October 1974.

leave, and the 49th Session of the International Labour Conference adopted a resolution advocating:

> ... the access of workers to various types of paid educational leave, as distinct from holidays with pay for recreational purposes, in order to give them the opportunity and incentive to acquire the further education and training which they need to carry out their duties at the workplace and assume their responsibilities as members of the community.(1)

It should be noted that the ILO uses paid educational leave as a concept. This is the most evolved form of educational leave but, in fact, it is the prerequisite for enabling workers to make use of such leave. The point at issue in the stated principle that workers should continue to be paid when taking educational leave is whether to maintain the "meritocratic" thesis whereby candidates are expected to make sacrifices in terms of leisure-time activities or income in order to benefit from training because it is in the nature of an individual investment. The fact is that Article 1 of the above-mentioned resolution is unambiguous: admittedly, the aim is to enable individuals to adapt to technological developments, but it is also "to carry out their duties at the workplace and assume their responsibilities as members of the community". Hence the collective dimension of adult education represents an investment made by society as a whole and, by that token, workers on training leave should continue to be paid.

In 1974, the discussions within ILO culminated in the adoption, at its 59th Session, of two documents, a convention and a recommendation, the full texts of which are reproduced in the annexes to this volume. The two documents were adopted by a very large majority.

The 1973 Conference agreed that "the principle of paid educational leave should be regarded as a new labour right". This provision, which was included at the instigation of the workers' representatives, has already been incorporated into the legislation governing permanent education in a number of countries. It will be found, for instance, in the French law of 1971, the Belgian law of 1973, the Swedish law of 1974 and in the collective agreement for the engineering industry in Italy. However, the same principle was not upheld by the 1974 Conference, which considered that paid educational leave "should be regarded as one means of meeting the real needs of individual workers in a modern society", in response to representations by the developing countries whose resources are not even sufficient to meet the needs of initial training.

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1) International Labour Conference: 58th Session, Geneva 1973, Report VI (1), page 55.

	AGREEMENT				RECOMMENDATION			
	For	Abst.	Against	Total	For	Abst.	Against	Total
All ILO Member countries:								
Governmental members	162	27	4	193	187	5	2	194
Employers' members	40	11	39	90	64	20	4	88
Employees' members	93	-	-	93	91	-	-	91
All OECD Member countries:								
Governmental members	47	2		49 (1)	48	2		50
Employers' members	11	2	11	24	15	8	1	24(2)
Employees' members	25		25		25			25
OECD members covered by this report (3)								
Governmental members	20	-	-	20	20	-	-	20
Employers' members	6	1	3	10	8	2	-	10
Employees' members	10	-	-	10	10	-	-	10

1) Greece used only one government mandate for the vote on the agreement.

2) Ireland did not use its "employers" mandate.

3) Belgium, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States and Yugoslavia.

Educational leave is "leave granted to a worker for educational purposes for a specified period during normal working hours and without loss of earnings or other benefits by means of collective agreements or in other manners". The population concerned is therefore composed of workers engaged in employment and our analysis will be devoted to that category. But, as will be seen, this definition leaves room for some ambiguity. In some countries, for instance, provision is made for educational leave for young workers whose introduction into working life has not yet been fully assured. Likewise, should apprentices be included in the category of workers who have a job? Lastly, can the use of free time due to the spread of partial unemployment be considered as a special application of the concept of educational leave?

Whatever the answers may be, however, the ILO's definition of educational leave covers the following:

a) vocational training,
b) general education,
c) trade union education.

Vocational Training

Vocational training is now regarded as an instrument in an active labour policy instead of, as in the past, merely a means of soaking up the unemployment created by the lack of balance between labour supply and demand. This means that, in future, vocational training can be organised at the instigation of governments and employers so as to make it easier to effect technological changes in the system of production. This is a new dimension which supplements workers' individual aspirations to maintain and improve their levels of qualification. Vocational training is accordingly both an individual investment and an investment on the part of the socio-economic community. The requirements of this twofold objective will have repercussions on the manner in which training systems are financed. Among other things, the importance attached to the community aspect of the investment will dictate the relative size of the contributions made by the state and by employers to its financing.

General education

People's ability to adapt to new occupational situations depends to a large extent on their general educational level. The individual's introduction into social life is also very closely bound up with that factor. The tendency has too often been to keep general education and vocational training separate and the trend in present-day teaching systems is gradually to bring the technical and general aspects of curricula closer together.

The inclusion of general education in the permanent education system is also justified by virtue of the principle of equal opportunities for all. From the educational standpoint, the generation gap is particularly noticeable as far as general education is concerned, since the length of compulsory schooling has been significantly increased in many countries over the past thirty years.

The importance of general education in working life has not yet been fully recognised and this emerges clearly from employers' attitudes to the financing of training programmes. While they are generally agreeable to contributing to the financing of vocational training, they often consider that general education ought to be the responsibility of the state and/or the individual, except for the training of executive-level personnel and immigrant workers and, in a more general context, workers not knowing how to read or write.

Trade union education

In the United Nations international development strategy, an important role is ascribed to trade unions. In the industrialised nations, the socio-economic systems are moving increasingly towards widespread and concerted agreements between the state and workers' and employers' organisations. If such "contractual" relations are to be effective, the people facing each other round the table have to have a firm grounding in economic and social matters. This is why trade unions in some countries sometimes arrange for their most active members to be trained through the machinery provided for in the legislation on educational leave.

Even though, from the legal standpoint, a convention has to be ratified by every state before it comes into force, any texts adopted will obviously be used as a basis for the claims formulated by workers' organisations. From this point of view, there is ample justification for the apprehension many employers' representatives at the 1973 Conference felt at seeing so solemn an instrument used as a precedent for dynamic social change. This is the interpretation that has to be placed on the fact that some representatives voted for the recommendation but abstained or even objected to the vote on the convention. However, there was a larger majority in favour of adopting the convention among the OECD countries than among the entire group of countries attending the Conference, and this majority was even higher among the industrialised European countries. The general impression is that, in countries where educational leave systems already exist, employers accept the arrangement.

D. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND THE WORLD OF EDUCATION

The importance the matter of educational leave has now assumed is clearly illustrated by the ILO convention and recommendation and by recent developments in several countries; this will be described in the next chapter. The importance of educational leave resides in the fact that it is both a component of the employment and training policies pursued by governments and employers and a stage on the road enabling the individual to exercise greater freedom in organising his own life. There is every reason to believe that the existing legislation will become more widespread and will assume various forms, depending on the general employment situation, the relationships existing between trade unions and employers' organisations and the willingness of governments to take action. In short, a new right to time off has made its appearance and it now remains to define its scope.

At the same time, significant changes are taking place in the world of education. The considerable expansion of the 1960s is tapering off and the education system's ability to cater for individual needs and to offer equal opportunities to all is being increasingly questioned. This situation prompts the question of how the educational structures can best live up to expectations. One of the solutions contemplated consists of staggering training opportunities throughout people's lives as opposed to the existing system in which formal education, regardless of how long it lasts, always takes place in the early years. If the redistribution of training in this way is to prove feasible the individual will have to be given the assurance that he can have access to training again at a later stage. This was how the concept of the "deferred right to education" came into being.

> Failure to acquire or exercise at the earliest possible moment the right to more education generally disenfranchises the individual for good. The underlying principle of recurrent education is that the right to education should not be determined in this manner, but that individuals should be able to defer it to a more appropriate stage of their life.(1)

In several countries, the idea of the "deferred right" is being encouraged by the changes that are taking place in the demand for education and by the varied range of innovations that have been introduced to stimulate and satisfy that demand. These innovations need not be gone into here, but briefly their principal features include the introduction of a system of "credits" ("unités de valeur") which make it possible to take a number of courses at

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1) Recurrent education: Trends and Issues, CERI/OECD, 1975.

different times and a more integrated approach to problems through multidisciplinary training; the increased importance attached to experience in the acquisition of skills; the widespread use of audio-visual media to overcome some of the drawbacks caused by the distances separating students and lastly, the growing realisation that some groups, such as elderly people, must receive the benefit of specific arrangements and techniques if they are to be encouraged to take part in training activities.

However, these trends will only become really meaningful if they are viewed in relation to developments in the world of labour and they can only materialise through educational leave of absence as discussed in this report. The establishment of a "deferred right to education" can only be guaranteed if the existing barriers between initial and further training, between general education and vocational training and between the individual's occupational activities and his personal fulfilment are dismantled. The fundamental idea underlying the argument in favour of recurrent education is to be found in the introduction of a policy linking the concept of the "deferred right to education" to the widespread application of the right to educational leave. It is a policy such as this that would offer individuals a genuine opportunity of undergoing training whenever they see fit.

Chapter II

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE: THE EUROPEAN SITUATION

The scope of educational leave of absence as defined by the International Labour Organisation has become a target that its member countries have themselves adopted. As regards the actual situation in the European countries covered in this analysis, the target is met to varying degrees. Even at this stage, however, the three aspects of training contemplated by ILO - vocational training, general education and trade union education - can be used as criteria for assessing the extent to which the different countries are developing educational leave. One of the aims of this report is to clarify this issue in respect of the Member countries themselves, all of which accepted ILO's proposal.

However, the people concerned also have to be defined and in the first instance these will be confined to the active working population. As already stated, it will be seen that, "for reasons of proximity", the concept of educational leave ought to be extended to other categories of the population.

The history of educational leave in Europe did not start with the vote taken at the 59th International Labour Conference. Discussions had been going on for a number of years, from the end of the second world war in fact. They were not restricted to the question of educational leave alone, but spilled over into related fields such as adult education, recurrent education, youth education, vocational training, labour planning, the need for flexibility in a rapidly evolving industrial society, unemployment policies and so on. The list is a long one and the accent was placed on different features depending on the country involved. But the question of educational leave obviously has ramifications in several of the above sectors.

To complicate matters further, there were instances of educational leave before its time, although these were chiefly organised on an informal and scattered basis. In many cases, the initiative was taken by employers who sent some of their employees on courses to acquire a skill or a specific type of experience which was considered necessary for the firm to continue functioning. Some firms, especially those using complex technological processes - as in the data-processing industry - drew up long-term plans for training and highly skilled labour they were unable to obtain on the market. Government departments often set up in-service training systems for their own personnel. In the majority of cases this training was intended to improve qualification levels so as to enable staff to rise in grade. Since civil service unions are often very powerful, arrangements such as these assumed considerable proportions, the most important and most formally established being those concerned with young workers and school-leavers. Arrangements for apprentices were often governed by law or agreements or else by the trade or professional associations concerned. It is noteworthy that the training provided for young workers included a substantial proportion devoted to general education.

A. PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES

In spite of the broad range of existing systems and the differences in priorities laid down by the countries, a distinction can be made between two main approaches to the problem of educational leave. In some cases, the differences in standpoint can scarcely be singled out inasmuch as some of the features of one are liable to be found in legislation relating more specifically to the other. Furthermore, although the relationship existing between educational leave and the other issues raised is acknowledged in public discussion, it is quite common to find that the legislative provisions governing the different sectors contradict each other.

The first standpoint, which is more in line with the terms of the ILO convention and recommendation, acknowledges educational leave of absence as an individual right. This system exists in France, Belgium, Italy(1), Yugoslavia and Sweden, and, according to information received, is in the process of being adopted in the Netherlands. In a problem of this nature, the aims pursued and the discussions at the time the legislation was adopted show that the issue is chiefly one of ensuring social mobility and the individual's right to vocational training, education and culture. Workers have, in effect, two rights in one: that of choosing the courses they wish to attend - within the limits, admittedly, of a set of regulations governing the choice of subject and the institutions teaching that subject - and that of taking leave of absence

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1) Italian legislation is more complex since the individual right is organised within a collective framework. Credit for the time spent on educational leave is calculated for all employees in a given firm and the individual right is then exercised within that particular "bracket".

from their workplace for that purpose. The second right may, or may not, be supplemented by the right to compensation for loss of earnings due to absence on leave. In Belgium, for example, most training courses at the present time are held outside working hours. By virtue of the principle whereby workers are credited with the time spent on training, workers are offered the possibility of reducing, as a form of compensation, the length of time they work up to the total number of hours they spend on training. These non-working hours are paid. In the French and Swedish legislation, on the other hand, the right to leave of absence does not automatically give the right to remuneration.

In Sweden and Belgium, the fact that there is a general law does not preclude the existence of selective legislation. An upper limit may be set to the reimbursement of lost earnings, as in Belgium, or priority may be given to certain groups, such as immigrants in Sweden. Employers may not normally refuse to grant educational leave of absence to workers - provided, of course, they fulfil the eligibility requirements - but machinery exists for deferring enjoyment of the right, for operational reasons, on condition that the employers can prove that the deferment is necessary.

The second standpoint is the very different one of the importance attached to vocational training in meeting the needs of industrial society. In actual fact, this "economist's" view of training always involves reference to individual needs inasmuch as a worker's qualifications contribute both to the growth of industry and to the advancement of his own career. But stress is placed more on the qualitative improvement of labour viewed as an essential factor in the process of economic growth. The aims pursued are as follows:

- increasing the "flexibility" of labour;
- improving and updating qualifications;
- making use of manpower resources and forming a labour force that is skilled enough to allow the pursuit of industrialisation and economic development policies.

These policies comprise not only the introduction of new production processes but also the application of new styles of work organisation which require trained workers. In this approach, educational leave is considered less as an individual right than as one of the pillars of an industrial training policy geared to national objectives. In a situation such as this, the list of priorities for industrial training is determined by representatives of both employers and workers. In the United Kingdom, a system of this kind was introduced in which the amount of financial compensation paid was made to vary with the nature of the courses attended. Since, Under this arrangement, employers obtain reimbursement of the expenditure incurred on personnel training from the organisations - the Industrial Training Boards - to which they pay a contribution in proportion to their wages bill, management decisions on organising training plans tend to reflect the amount of reimbursement they expect to obtain.

These two standpoints and the programmes arising out of them concern only that part of the population engaged in employment, i.e. according to the terms of the definition adopted, the population affected by educational leave. In practice, however, government action in respect of training subsequent to initial education is directed towards a set of groups, not all of which concerned with educational leave. These policies often form a coherent course of action, some of which come under the heading of "action by contract" in which the granting of educational leave is involved, while others do not. However, the entire range of action taken has to be considered if the priorities laid down in official aid policy are to be analysed. The system introduced in France under the 1971 law is typical in this respect. On the one hand, provision is made for granting educational leave of absence while, on the other, priority is given to the training of certain groups by government decision. These two forms are quite separate but they have one thing in common: the fact that training is received through the granting of educational leave and the government reimburses its cost to the employers. The principles of government intervention in France were laid down by decree in 1974 as follows:

1. Public intervention should give priority to improving the employment situation by fostering:
   - action conducive to the introduction of young people into working life;
   - action to redeploy unemployed workers.
2. Secondly, public intervention should aim at promoting action on behalf of those categories of workers who are liable to be excluded from economic and social development.
3. Thirdly, government assistance should, on a selective basis, contribute to solving the problems raised by the continual changes attendant on the growth and modernisation of our economy.
4. In certain cases, assistance for vocational training may pave the way for operations relating to regional economic development, regardless of whether these involve the establishment of new industrial centres or the transformation of certain geographical areas where traditional activities predominate.(1)

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1) Conseil national de la formation professionnelle, de la promotion sociale et de l'emploi. Meeting of 22nd January, 1974.

In the United Kingdom, where the Industrial Training Act of 1964 represents an attempt to promote training in both qualitative and quantitative terms, the government maintains special action programmes on behalf of specific groups. In 1973 the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS) was changed to enable people leaving their jobs before having enjoyed the benefit of the training system to be trained for other employment.

However, in many respects the two approaches lead to similar development models. In a few cases governments were the driving force behind the programmes (the Ministry of Labour in the United Kingdom, the Prime Minister's Office in France for the legislation prior to the 1971 law, and in Yugoslavia) but, above all, the initiative came from trade union organisations (Belgium, Italy, France in respect of the round-table agreements leading up to the 1971 law, and the Netherlands), from employers' organisations (Sweden) or from political parties (Federal Republic of Germany).

Although several countries (France, the United Kingdom, Belgium and Yugoslavia) have reformed their technical education systems, there is nothing to suggest that any move in favour of educational leave came from the traditional educational sector. The impression gained is that the traditional sector was completely unconnected with the system of educational leave and industrial training, at least as far as setting up the machinery was concerned. When the programmes are introduced, however, widespread use is made of teaching institutions. This separation is sometimes made quite explicit in the legislation on which the programmes are based. The British Industrial Training Act of 1964 stipulates that the organisations responsible for its implementation shall be composed of an equal number of workers' and employers' representatives. Members of the teaching profession are admitted as observers, but they are explicitly excluded from decision-making on financial mechanisms. None of the documents and opinions presented to governments to enable them to prepare legislation emanate from the traditional educational sector.

There appear to be two types of procedure for discussion: either the government invites trade unions and employers' organisations to present their views before a bill is presented to parliament, or else the government itself takes the initiative of putting forward a draft and submits it for comment to the representatives of the socio-economic sectors. In both cases, however, there is a common link in that the government's proposals are always based on ideas that have already been debated by the social partners and an endeavour is made, in working out the final provisions, to arrive at a compromise between the various positions.

Very often, in fact, governments only intervene to give legal effect and general application to contractual agreements that have already been concluded by trade unions and employers. The French example is typical, since the 1971 law gave mandatory effect to the provisions laid down in the 1970 agreements.

A fairly precise idea of the aims pursued can be obtained from the preambles to the laws that have been adopted, from the documents explaining government positions and from the discussions on the subject. These aims fall into two quite distinct groups which reflect the two standpoints described above. The first group is concerned with the application of an active employment policy and the future needs of industry. The other is concerned with social mobility and may make reference to the idea of offering equal opportunities to the different social groups. In the first case, the aims also include references to the requirements of industrialisation and economic growth and, last but not least, to the promotion of democratic practices in industry as a means of fostering social concord. Obviously, these factors vary in importance, depending on the country concerned. In the United Kingdom, for instance, it is considered important to make training compulsory in small firms as well. But all the aims in the first group recur with surprising frequency in national legislation. There are two points that deserve to be stressed, although they are both well-known. The first is unanimous recognition that modern technology and industrial growth require training policies to display some flexibility and all partners now accept the premise that every worker will have to change his job at least once in his lifetime. Secondly, the fact that these programmes have been negotiated and adopted by the three main protagonists - the state, the employers and the workers - and that they are usually put into practice on a bipartite basis shows that most countries have committed themselves to the principle of equal representation in all discussions, even though all conflicts may not have been eliminated. In the latter respect, the rather vague concept of industrial democracy, to which reference is often made, adds a socio-political dimension that is still somewhat ambiguous.

The second group of aims lays more stress on the social mobility of workers and on providing equal opportunities for all, although these ideas are not completely absent from the foregoing considerations on economic growth, in which case they are approached from the standpoint of improving qualification standards. This second type of aim is adopted in countries that have recognised that educational leave is in the nature of an individual right. When the concept of providing equal opportunities for all is defined, groups of workers are singled out for priority treatment.

In Sweden, for instance, one such group is composed of immigrants, who, as soon as they arrive in the country, are required to attend a training course in which considerable importance is attached to general education and language learning. Another group consists of elderly workers who did not enjoy the same initial training opportunities as young people, while a third group is made up of people who, because of the hours they work, are unable to attend evening or weekend classes. Trade unions in the Netherlands have also requested that priority be given to older people.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, where there is no federal legislation as such on educational leave but where some of the provincial authorities have laid down provisions for the people under their administration, the benefit of such leave is often limited to young people under 25 years of age. Here, as in Italy, the collective agreements leave considerable scope for negotiations within the firms themselves and the priorities are determined at that level. In Belgium, the law on the granting of time-credits only applies to workers under the age of 40. In the discussions that took place prior to the drafting of the law, stress was laid on the inequality existing between students attending full-time courses as part of their initial training and young workers who had to attend classes in their leisure hours. In some cases, this age requirement may discourage the recruitment of young people, for whom firms have to bear the additional burden of paying for educational leave.

B. LEGISLATION ADOPTED

Application procedures and conditions of eligibility

The procedures involved obviously depend, at least in the legislation, on the concept and purpose of educational leave. In countries where the individual right is recognised, the initiative is left, theoretically, to the worker, but he is required to inform his employer that he proposes to undergo a given type of training and that he wishes to benefit from the legislation on educational leave. The employer cannot refuse to grant the leave but he can defer it on bona-fide grounds which have to be assessed by the trade unions or by the firm's employer-staff committee (Sweden, Belgium, France and Italy). This "right of deferment" allowed to the employer is strictly regulated and may not exceed given limits. In France, for example, the length of time is laid down in the agreements existing between employers' and workers' organisations. In instances where such agreements - which are concluded by sectors of activity - do not exist, the deferment may not exceed one year. In Sweden, if the employer proposes a deferment of more than six months, the agreement of the local trade union section is obligatory. In Belgium, the leave, or rather the "compensation", must be granted within the year in which the training takes place.

In practice, some problems can be raised by this arbitration faculty which employer-staff committees are given in the event of conflicts. Trade union representatives on such committees are naturally inclined to think in terms of their overall strategy in respect of their demands and the settlement of individual disputes arising out of the application of the right to educational leave may not be considered to have high priority. An external arbitration board, likewise on a basis of equal representation, would probably be more suited to the purpose.

When educational leave is organised in conjunction with an industrial policy, the management or the employer-staff committee has the prerogative of choosing the trainees and the type of training. The worker is naturally entitled to refuse what he is offered In addition, if he wants to attend a particular course, he can submit an application which has to be examined against the general background of the firm's training policy. This is the practice in the United Kingdom and Federal Germany, except in the Länder of Berlin, Hamburg and Lower Saxony. In actual fact, only Belgium, Italy and Sweden have totally embraced the concept of individual rights, whereby the individual can choose a particular type of training, even though it must come from a list approved either by the government or by employer-worker organisations. While the individual character of the right is recognised in France, the complexity of the legislation is such that considerable restraints are placed on the exercise of that right and it can only be enjoyed in connection with a firm's training plans or government-organised training. Even in Sweden, the distinction that is made between the right to educational leave and the right to the maintenance of earnings is liable to prove a considerable handicap to the enjoyment of the right. In Denmark, where some legislative provisions grant the right to educational leave for vocational training purposes, the failure to provide any guarantee of re-employment on completion of training reduces the exercise of the right.

The problem seems to have been solved in the most satisfactory manner in Yugoslavia, thanks to the political and economic organisation existing in that country. In the workers' management system the workers determine both the requirements of the firm and their own needs. If the two are not compatible, however, the demands of the working community carry the day.

In none of the countries do the training options offered appear to be left to the individual worker's discretion. Official recognition of courses is granted either by the government, as in Belgium, France and Denmark, or by collective agreements or public bodies, as in the United Kingdom, France, Italy and Yugoslavia.

Some countries have laid down conditions of eligibility that are linked with the length of service with the firm, as in France and Sweden. Other countries, like France and Italy, have placed restrictions on the number of workers who may benefit from educational leave at any one time. In Belgium, the rate at which compensation in the form of time off is allowed for the time spent on training is "modulated" according to the stage training has reached (the training in question is a course in social advancement which lasts three years). In France, people who have a full diploma in higher studies or a professional diploma of less than three years standing are not eligible for educational leave.

We have already seen that, in some countries like Sweden and France, priority is given to certain groups. Such groups exist both in systems in which the aims are bound up with the exercise of individual rights and in systems in which the problem is situated in the context of an industrial policy. However, while the principle of equal opportunities for all is often set forth in the preambles to legislation, in practice it is usually taken for granted that equal opportunities will occur in situations in which everybody's rights are the same, except in Yugoslavia, apparently, where people with low educational standards are automatically given priority regardless of their age. But it is a well-known fact that, in matters involving training, if free rein is given to natural mechanisms, the only result can be increasing inequality. People who are already highly skilled have the greatest motivation for wanting to acquire further skills. If the objective of equal opportunities for all is to be attained, some form of compensation will have to be devised so as to ensure that the less trained workers are, the more motivated they will be.

Various measures along these lines have been taken in Belgium. Since training usually takes place outside working hours, the time spent for that purpose is offset by a reduction in the length of the working day and the length of the reduction increases as the worker nears the end of his training. The reduction in the length of time spent at work entails a reduction in earnings and this is reimbursed to the worker up to a ceiling of 28,000 Belgian francs a month. If the individual normally receives a higher wage, he is therefore not fully compensated for the loss of earnings due to his having undergone training. Since the law was only adopted recently, it is difficult to gauge the effect this provision has had on the distribution of trainees according to their occupational background. However, it is worth noting that more than half those who have benefited from the time-credit law are factory workers.

It may not be easy to solve the problem of inequalities in levels of training by employer-worker consultations alone. The aims of industry, in a liberal economy at least, lie elsewhere. Except in Italy and Yugoslavia, the tasks labour unions have to cope with do not enable them to take over the project completely, even though they are very aware of the problem. Hence, it is up to the government to carry out the policy. The French government has started to do so, but more for reasons of an economic character. General education holds a very minor place in the French system and, even among the priority measures taken by the government, which we have already mentioned, the purpose in all instances is to assist members of certain groups to find employment or another job.

C. LENGTH OF EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

The length of time spent on educational leave varies with countries and the arrangements adopted. There are three basic models:

- workers are authorised to be absent from work for the number of hours they spent on courses, as in France, the United Kingdom, Yugoslavia, Sweden and Denmark;
- only partial compensation is allowed, as in Belgium and Italy;
- thirdly, in the Netherlands and Italy, educational leave is allotted a given number of days or hours, which are laid down by regulation.

When the educational leave is for training organised by the employer or in the more general context of specific government measures, it is only natural that the length of leave should correspond to the number of hours' training proposed. The length of time involved may vary to an appreciable extent. In certain firms in Yugoslavia it may last for as long as four years, during which time earnings continue to be paid. Very often, however, the period is much shorter. In France, for example, the average length of educational leave organised under the provisions of the 1971 law amounts to 70 hours a year, which is much shorter than the 360 hours of training which the government offers in its specific action programmes. Under the French system, in which the initiative for training comes from two different directions, employers seem to make use of educational leave strictly to fit workers for new qualifications and give as little consideration as possible to the importance of the broader aspects of training.

In Belgium and in Italy, where the individual right is more clearly established, the line has been taken that educational leave is a reward for personal effort. In Belgium, the type of training carrying the right to educational leave mainly consists of "social advancement" courses which are organised or approved by the government and are spread over three years in the evenings or during weekends. The "time credit" allowed to make up for the leisure hours spent on the course amounts to 100 per cent of the training time if the trainee is in his third year, 50 per cent if he is in his second year and 25 per cent in the first year. In Italy, the length of training must be at least twice as long as the 150 hours' leave granted over a three-year period.

In some countries, a fixed length of time is set for certain types of training and, in the Netherlands at least, this means that a longer period of leave cannot be granted.

The foregoing obviously relates to paid educational leave, in other words to a type of arrangement arising out of a reciprocal agreement reached by the parties concerned. It is only in cases such as this that workers' training can play a role in providing equal opportunities. But, as we have already seen, some governments make a distinction between the right to take leave and the right to maintain earnings. This is the case in France, where the 1971 law provides explicitly that "the educational leave shall correspond to the length of the training period and shall not be for more than one year if training is on a continuous, full-time basis or for more than 1,200 hours if training consists of a teaching cycle in which courses are not continuous or are on a part-time basis". However, leave may exceed one year or 1,200 hours if the training is for "vocational advancement" purposes, and here the law continues "... workers taking such educational leave may be paid by their employers in execution of the provisions of the contract ...". This distinction, which is also to be found in the Swedish law, seems to offer workers the possibility of taking unpaid leave, although this is irrelevant in the French case at least. It is irrelevant because there is no credit for training in some countries and the only solution for workers faced with such a situation would be to use their savings if they have any.

In principle, rights to educational leave cannot be accrued, even in cases where no explicit provisions are made, as in Italy, where the 150 hours represent the maximum individual allowances per three-year period. Some governments appear to rely on the employer-worker consultation machinery to strike this balance. In fact, some countries (France and Italy) have laid down special provisions limiting the number of workers absent on educational leave at any one time to 2 per cent of the labour force, a proportion which ensures a rapid turnover in the numbers having access to training. However, in France, this 2 per cent upper limit may be exceeded if employers consider it worthwhile. They are also allowed considerable freedom in deciding on the practice they adopt since, for the same training budget, they can send either a large number of workers on short training periods or a few for the longer periods which would probably be more beneficial to the workers themselves.

D. TYPES OF TRAINING OFFERED

Most of the educational systems are for vocational training (except in Italy),(1) but the problem on which employers and unions differ most is that of introducing general education into the range of facilities offered. This is particularly true of those countries that have adopted arrangements based on the exercise of the individual right. In France, for example, the law of 1971 grants, in principle, the right to leave both for general education and vocational training. In practice, however, the distinction that is made between the right to educational leave and the right to maintenance of earnings, together with the prerogatives attached to employers, are such that non-vocational training is extremely uncommon and, if workers obtain leave for such training, it is very often at their own expense. Training activities accordingly fall into four categories: preventive training to reduce the risk of qualifications not keeping pace with technical developments, adaptation training to make it easier for people to obtain their first job or change their job, vocational advancement training to assist workers in obtaining a higher qualification, and maintenance or refresher training to enable workers to sustain their skills or culture. Although no information is available, general education courses, if they exist, probably come under the last-mentioned heading.

In fact, views on the importance of general education in adult programmes differ not only between employers and workers but also between trade unions themselves. The largest French union, the Confédération Générale du Travail (C.G.T.) is implicitly in favour

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1) The collective agreement in the engineering industry which was used as a model for organising the "right to study" stipulates that the leave applies to workers wishing "to improve their own cultural level even in connection with the firm's activities". While employers consider that "culture" in this context can only be contemplated in the light of the workers' occupational activities, the unions claim that the idea is to provide a general education which may be converted into vocational training in some cases. In the practical application of the system, the second argument has prevailed.

of priority being given to vocational training,(1) whereas the Confédération Française Démocratique du Travail (C.F.D.T.) wants the scope of the law to be broadened to include general education.

The Belgian law on educational leave has given rise to the same differences of opinion between employers and workers. At the outset, it was mainly concerned with vocational training although, by definition, since the courses offered came under the general heading of social advancement, some were specifically related to general subjects and most of them included some non-vocational training, however slight. In October 1974 a royal decree extended the scope of the law to cover "intellectual, moral and social education" against the wishes of employers, who would have preferred the status quo to be maintained and consideration to be given to the situation of workers over 40 years of age. This type of course is organised by trade unions, youth movements and government-approved associations and provides general and cultural education enabling individuals to have a better grasp of the workings of the socio-economic system and thereby play a more active part in social life.

In Sweden, a law on educational leave has been in force since 1st January, 1975. It stipulates that such leave shall apply to all types of general, vocational and trade union education. In this country, where there has been a significant growth in adult education and where one of the principal objectives of educational leave is to level out the inequalities existing between generations, a considerable role will probably be played by general education.

However, in every case and in every country, general education facilities are offered to young workers without any objections having been raised, even in countries where no general legislation exists. In the Netherlands, in particular, among the provisions for young workers, mention is made of the general education facilities they are offered during educational leave.

There are several other special groups of workers who can enjoy the benefit of educational leave for non-vocational training. The Swedish law on immigrant workers makes provision in the programmes organised on their behalf for a large measure of general education. In Yugoslavia, some of the current operations are intended for the illiterate working population. In the Netherlands, there are special teaching cycles for members of employer-staff committees.

The institutions providing training are usually public or government-approved private teaching establishments, although they may be centres run by several firms or associations that are likewise recognised by the authorities. It is only in France and, to

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1) H. Moissonnier: "Un tremplin pour nos luttes" (A springboard for our struggles), Esprit, October 1974.

a lesser extent, in the Federal Republic of Germany where there is no precise legislation on the subject, that an "open market" for training has grown up, in which there is no control over costs and the standard of teaching is very varied. In France, in particular, the greater part of the funds earmarked for training under the law of 1971 is channelled into training ventures, many of which have been set up for the circumstance and are not subject to proper control. French legislation only provides for a superficial check on the expenditure firms incur on training.

E. FINANCING MECHANISMS

It will be found from a study of the adult education systems existing in Europe that the countries are influenced by two very different traditions which have a significant bearing on the financial arrangements decided upon. Some of the countries (Belgium, Sweden, the United Kingdom) have a long-standing tradition of evening or weekend courses which are organised by local authorities or by various kinds of association, or else by the government itself. On the other hand, others, like France and Italy, while offering the individual scope for self-promotion, have had relatively little general success. In those two countries, the individual effort of self-promotion is made by people who have difficulty in fitting into their original environment - very few of them, for example, are trade unionists - and who try to escape through additional training.

In those countries where the adult education system works well the government and local authorities have been contributing substantially for a long time to the operating and capital costs.(1)

The situation is not the same in the other countries and this, paradoxically, is why, in the most recent legislation, employers are expected to bear a substantial portion of the financing burden. In fact, through the discussions that have taken place on the establishment of educational leave, the perspective has shifted in favour of collective action. Although most existing legislation speaks of the worker's individual right to educational leave, its collective character is underscored by the concern displayed for placing that right on a formal basis and for ensuring that it is supervised by bodies on which workers' and employers' organisations are equally represented.

The collective character of demands in respect of educational leave goes hand in hand with the new and added dimension acquired by

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1) It should be added that virtually all the countries have correspondence courses which are financed by the authorities.

training. From being considered an individual investment in many countries - chiefly in the English-speaking world - education is now being increasingly regarded as a social investment, in line with the thesis propounded in several European countries. It is a social investment both from the employers' standpoint, because of the vocational training it provides and, in the broader view, on account of the general educational aspects. The existence of this twofold objective affects the way in which the training system is financed. In particular, the relative contributions the government and employers make to financing the system depend on the importance attached to the collective aspect of the investment.

Despite the uncertainties due to the relative "youth" of educational leave systems, we can say that, as a general rule, the financing is shared by the government and the employers.(1) The recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference at its 59th Session only ratifies a situation that already existed:
"Article 12. It should be recognised that:

a) employers, collectively or individually,
b) public authorities and educational or training institutions or bodies, and
c) employers' and workers' organisations,

may be expected to contribute to the financing of arrangements for paid educational leave according to their respective responsibilities."

i) General Arrangements

Two separate problems are involved in financing educational leave systems:

- the cost of the training system,
- the payment of trainees if they attend courses during working hours.

We have already touched on the developments that have prompted some countries to establish an educational leave system, although they already have fully-fledged schemes for adult education through evening and weekend classes. Another trend is in favour of organising training during working hours so that everybody can have equal access to the system. The question then arises as to whether trainees' earnings should continue to be paid or not. This poses no problem when training is organised at the employer's instance, as has long been the case, but matters are different when a right granted to workers is involved.

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1) In some instances even, the workers themselves or the unions make a small contribution to financing the system.

The arrangements made differ from country to country. In some, like Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands,(1) the educational leave system is financed by means of a contribution(2) based on the wages paid. This contribution may be entirely borne by the employers as in France and the Netherlands, or paid in equal shares by workers and employers as in Federal Germany, or else is shared between the government and employers, which is the case in Belgium. The proceeds of the contribution may either be paid into an independently-administered "Fund", which reimburses employers for the costs they actually incur in training their workers, or may be a "mandatory expenditure" for employers who settle their commitments directly with their employees, as in France.

In other countries, the employer's financial responsibility is limited to continuing to pay the worker's wages, since the training institutions are often publicly-administered or state-aided. This is the case in Sweden in respect of "labour market training"(3) and in Italy.(4) As a general rule, some government departments in all the countries have set up permanent training schemes, mainly in teaching and the army, but in other sectors as well. In such cases, the activities are financed directly by the government department concerned, but it cannot be denied that the situation is similar to what existed in the private sector before the right to educational leave was acknowledged.

In one country, Yugoslavia, the spread of the workers' management system to social activities, one of which is education, has meant that responsibility for granting the right to educational leave and for financing training has been transferred to the territorial authorities. Hence, there is no need to seek a distinction between the arrangements made, because these vary from one community to another, or to highlight any particular form of financing, since education is integrated "on the basis of the free exchange of labour and in accordance with its contribution to the growth of social productivity and to general, social and cultural progress."(5)

The extent to which the state contributes to the financing of training also varies from country to country. As a rule, since the authorities provide the training system with teaching institutions, they in effect defray the cost of capital investment, as well as the operating costs in many cases. Even in instances like that in

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1) For training of members of employer-staff committees.

2) This, in fact, makes the contribution a tax, since it is compulsory.

3) For workers who "run the risk of becoming unemployed".

4) Under the agreements by sectors negotiated between unions and employers.

5) Tenth Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia, 1974.

France, where the teaching institutions charge users for the training given (in point of fact, the costs are paid by the employers), the unit cost consists of the marginal cost of the instructors' salaries. In the near future, a very serious problem, which is not peculiar to France, is liable to arise over the level of these costs, because of the existence of both public and private institutions on the training market. This problem is essentially bound up with the volume of costs and with the way in which they are supervised. In virtually all the countries, the initial education establishment is reluctant to open its doors to adults and is thus paving the way for a proliferation of profit-making institutions whose growth will have to be controlled. Unbridled cost inflation is liable to reduce the number of workers who will be able to benefit from the system. Furthermore, the private market very often addresses itself to tertiary sector training which does not need expensive equipment and therefore to some extent exacerbates the tendency for adult education to be "taken over" by the executive classes who are already more motivated about rounding off their training.

ii) The Financial Effort and its Implications

It is impossible to estimate the real financial effort involved in the establishment of educational leave. Statistics are lacking, especially on the effort employers are actually making on behalf of their workers irrespective of official legislation. Moreover, adult education systems, which cover a much wider range than that concerned with educational leave, are extremely complex.(1) Lastly, there are many different sources of financing.

To give examples, in France employers' contributions under the law of 1971 amounted to the equivalent of 700 million dollars in 1974, while, in the time-credit system in Belgium in the same year, they were equal to 24 million dollars, plus the 20 million paid by the government, which shares the cost of applying the law with the employers.

Most of the educational leave systems existing in Europe are in their infancy and it is difficult to draw any conclusions about the economic significance of the amounts now being allocated to them. However, a number of features can already be singled out:

- In all cases, except perhaps Yugoslavia where credits earmarked for initial training may be re-allocated, the amounts involved have to be obtained from a new source of financing contributed in whole or in part by employers and supplementing the resources already devoted to education. It

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1) This complexity is not likely to make it any easier for workers to exercise their right to educational leave.

should be noted, however, that to a slight extent some types of adult education that already existed have been incorporated in the new system and that the training can count on considerable support from public amenities. Even so, there has been a spectacular rise in the sums devoted to training and it may prove necessary to put some order in the system in years to come, especially if the economic crisis affecting the Western countries continues;(1)

- this trend is all the more likely to grow since, as we have already seen, the basis for assessing financial contributions is usually the employers' wages bill which, under the pressure of events, is likely to increase at least as fast as the price indices. Hence, even if employers' contribution rates do not change, increasingly substantial amounts, in real terms, can be expected to become available. As the arrangements made now stand, there is nothing to suggest that economic conditions will affect the amounts available, except perhaps in Yugoslavia where the amounts set aside for training are directly determined by the workers' communities on the basis of the operating results achieved in the economic sectors;
- the type of financing adopted, whereby employers are required to make a considerable effort, gives no clue as to who finally bears the financial burden of the system. As a general rule, the contributions paid by employers are considered, from the standpoint of taxation, as being social charges, i.e. they are reckoned as overheads and can accordingly be deducted from taxable profits. Precise information on the different tax regimes to which employers are subjected would be needed to obtain a clear picture. The likelihood is that the extra cost is passed on to some extent, through price increases, if not at once, at least in the medium-term.(2) Virtually all countries have thus tended to make the financing of educational leave the responsibility of the community (via taxpayers and/or consumers) or to require a limited contribution from the workers, as in Federal Germany. In no instance has

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1) This "superimposition" of two training systems (the initial system and the adult education system), both of which are expensive to operate, may induce various countries to take steps towards introducing recurrent education, if only for reasons of economy.

2) The costs borne by employers are, in fact, lower than they would appear merely from an evaluation of the expenditure incurred, which usually includes salary charges when trainees continue to be paid. The spare productivity existing in large firms at least, often enables the level of production to be maintained without extra personnel having to be recruited.

there been any proposal for setting up machinery for granting loans to workers on training leave, even though the possibility exists for individuals in certain cases.

iii) Miscellaneous Issues Arising out of the Financing of Educational Leave

The system that has been adopted, whereby employers are expected to bear the brunt of the financial effort, gives rise to many ambiguous situations which are a source of conflict. Although situations differ, it is only natural that an industrialist's aims should be focused on economic considerations and that he should therefore tend to give preference, as has already been said, to the occupational aspects of training. Even if he acknowledges that a fairly high general cultural level can be a professional asset, he usually considers that this should be provided by the state and not by the employer. This view was frequently expressed at the last International Labour Conference and, despite the sharp opposition of the trade unions, it has to be acknowledged that the employers' protests constituted a justifiable challenge to the effectiveness of the initial training system. Another reason for this attitude of mistrust on the part of the employers is bound up with the growth pattern of the initial educational system which is largely beyond the control of the public authorities owing to their obligation to satisfy popular demand whereas adult education is still controlled by existing regulations.

In addition, the private financing of adult education does not make it easy, from the psychological and political standpoints, to ensure its co-ordination with initial training systems, which are usually government-controlled and are traditionally suspicious of industrial firms which they regard as being exclusively concerned with production and profits. In some countries, such as France, the distrust is increased because the legislation allows industrialists to set up training associations which are not administered on an equal-representation basis and which experience has shown receive the greater part of employers' contributions. As a result, public technical training establishments are scarcely used at all.

When a system is financed out of the equivalent of a parafiscal tax, the question arises of whether the result obtained is accompanied by a social transfer between the different economic agents involved. This question is particularly important, since one of the aims of educational leave is to even out the differences in training levels between individuals of the same generation and between generations that did not enjoy the same initial training opportunities. It has been found that the people who take advantage of educational leave programmes are usually young and that a relatively high number of them are executive grade personnel. A number of reasons that may account for this fact have already been mentioned.(1) We would be justified in asking - and this has nothing to do with a study of the financing of educational leave - whether such a system can function without some reorganisation of the work process in industry. Once a worker is given certain responsibilities, it becomes very difficult for him to be absent on training leave during working hours. And yet, if he does not go for training, there is a danger his skills will deteriorate to some extent and the inability of executives in a particular age group to find employment may not be unconnected with that fact.

The last aspect is that involving small-sized firms. The introduction of educational leave has not entailed much change for large firms, apart from the fact that training is provided in institutions outside the firm in some cases. By contrast, the legislation now in force is primarily addressed to small firms, which have hitherto scarcely been in the habit of providing for permanent training for their personnel. Based as it is on the employers' wages bill, the contributions paid by the large number of small firms do not suffice to cover the cost of organising training schemes for a significant number of workers. In many cases, the contributions are used to finance training for the head of the firm and although this may be useful in itself, it does not cater for the workers' needs. This problem is, it seems, a very important one and the authorities will have to take action to correct such a situation for it is liable to smack of injustice. While there is no need to go into theoretical considerations about economic development, the fact is, however, that there is a host of small firms in Europe which display an excellent profit-earning capacity and the most up-to-date of which at least often provide very satisfactory working conditions.

By way of conclusion in this matter of financing, it should be pointed out that very few studies exist on the economic aspects of permanent education(2) and they all start from the premise that one year's extra study at the end of the initial training period has to be weighed against its deferment in favour of a year's further

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1) A detailed economic analysis would be invaluable for measuring the transfers taking place between the different agents involved.

2) Among others, Ken Gannicott: Recurrent Education, A Preliminary Cost-benefit Analysis (Australian Council for Educational Research, February 1972) and Vladimir Stoikov: "Recurrent Education: Some Neglected Economic Issues", ILO Review, August-September 1973.

training at a later date. This approach does not appear very realistic. In the first place, it is doubtful if the duration of initial studies is based on a rational economic calculation. It is a known fact that the pursuit of higher studies in certain subjects has little to do with such considerations. Moreover, despite the many attempts that have been made to find one, no valid yardstick exists for measuring individual performance and especially for gauging the social return of education. The problem amounts to ascertaining whether social advantage will be derived from offering permanent education to a given working population with given educational levels. This question is political, in any event. Educational leave only became the general rule when there was a favourable political response to union claims in defence of the concept. The movement is now well under way and it is very unlikely that there will be any backsliding in Europe. Educational leave comes under the heading of social gains, like health insurance and old-age pension schemes. The problem is accordingly one of organising the system so that it becomes really effective from the social and individual angles and of moving ahead towards creating a rational structure for recurrent education in which initial training will be reformed to accord with the possibility of lifelong education.

F. WORKER PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL LEAVE SYSTEMS

Part II of the present study provides detailed information about worker participation on a country-by-country basis. Here, we shall confine ourselves to raising a few general issues that have been prompted by an analysis of the different national situations.

It is important not to be misled by the large figures often quoted for the number of trainees. The freedom of choice conferred on workers applies to very few individuals, even in countries where educational leave is considered an individual right. There are many reasons for this, and it is impossible to tell whether it is because, from the very beginning, employers designated the people who were to benefit from the system, which was therefore regarded as being one of the tools of employer policy, or whether, on the contrary, employers designated candidates because individual responses were not forthcoming. The situation is particularly striking in Belgium, where courses are held in the evenings and at weekends and yet, despite the large number of people attending them, very many trainees refuse to inform their employers of the effort they are making and therefore forgo their right to paid leave. Hence it is difficult to form a proper opinion on the real reasons. Rightly or wrongly, workers may be afraid of revealing their own training plans or, in cases where they undergo training during working hours, they may be reluctant to run the risk of demanding that the law be applied. "Workers must first ensure that the rights obtained through legislation and agreement are complied with, applied and extended."(1) There are other, more straightforward, reasons to do with the complex nature of the legislation and the workers' lack of familiarity with their rights.

Making sure workers know their rights poses serious problems, especially for people who, owing to their inadequate initial education, feel ill at ease when faced with legal provisions whose meaning and scope are often beyond them. In countries like Italy and Sweden, where the trade unions themselves disseminate information, the workers, and especially the most underprivileged of them, take a more active part in the system. In view of the circumstances in which educational leave has come into being, in which it is often regarded as a new right that has to be established, the role played by trade unions and the authorities in providing workers with more comprehensive and clearer information has to be increased.

In some countries, there is probably a more decisive reason for the low rate of individual participation. When they have completed training, workers are inclined to expect that they will be promoted or will at least resume their previous posts; but the fact is that there is no such provision in any national legislation for workers who propose to exercise their individual right. As poorly-qualified workers often have unpleasant memories of the initial education system, they are not very tempted to launch out into a new type of training, which they tend to compare with the old-style training they did not like, when they think that it will probably not offer them any advantage. "Those people for whom school was a failure have difficulty in imagining that training can be anything more than going back to school, from which they expect to gain nothing ... The demand will only begin to grow when it is realised that training can change something in everyday life, either on the job or in after-work hours."(2)

As a result, the legislation on exercise of the individual right, which is the only real innovation in respect of educational leave, is liable to remain a dead letter if education is not rehabilitated and if a new relationship is not established between training, working conditions and employment on a negotiated basis. There are many examples which testify to the fact that adults who have a satisfactory initial education are more attracted to training

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1) Esprit, Paris, October 1974: the position of the French trade union C.G.T.

2) Esprit, October 1974: the position of the French trade union C.F.D.T.

than others. If the situation is left as it stands, it will be very difficult to offer equal opportunities to all, which is the acknowledged aim of permanent education. Hence it can be seen what links have to be established between that type of education and a far-reaching reform of the basic teaching system.

Secondly, serious difficulties are involved in securing recognition of an automatic right to promotion after workers have undergone additional training. The range of qualifications needed for a particular production process is relatively stable. Hence, considerable difficulty is experienced in absorbing personnel with new skills without upsetting the structure of employment in a firm, except when educational leave forms part of a "training scheme" organised by the management. The problem is less serious in large firms with a number of establishments between which some rotation of labour can be organised. It could be solved through inter-firm co-operation, which is feasible at the training level if the firms involved are not direct competitors on the market for goods and services. The application of national legislation equalising the financial burden firms have to bear in training their personnel should make it easier to exchange skilled workers. This alteration in industrial practice would appear to be necessary if tension is not to build up within firms or between firms because some introduce anti-social lay-off measures to the detriment of others. There will therefore probably have to be a gradual move towards far-reaching changes in working conditions, such as improving job standings and giving them a more human touch, making working hours more flexible, altering the length of the working day and so on. These changes, which would be warranted because of the improved productivity more widespread training would generate, would enable workers to reap the benefits of the effort they put into training.

Thus, although educational leave, as a privileged means of introducing training in all its forms into the life of the individual, can contribute both to improving his occupational existence and to reducing social inequalities, it demands the recasting of the educational system and the world of labour. An example of re-thinking along these lines is to be found in the text adopted at the Tenth Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia in 1974 which, although occurring in a particular socio-political context, summarises the issues well:

> "The entire organisation, forms and content of vocational education must be conceived in such a manner as will enable those still studying to take up work in a corresponding occupation upon completing a given phase of education and allow them - under a flexibly organised system of education - to go on with their studies, while simultaneously continuing to work.

All levels and forms of education upward of elementary education must provide the kind of training that will enable a person to take up corresponding work and also to go in for further permanent education. There can be no type of school or form of education that would exclusively prepare young people for university studies.

"It is therefore necessary that the curricula and programmes in the initial phase of higher education should offer all a common educational basis comprising general cultural knowledge, basic knowledge of social, economic and natural sciences and mathematics, and production techniques with a polytechnical orientation. On this common educational basis a flexibly conceived system of education divided into phases will be built, taking account of the requirements and of changes in the labour structure and in the basic occupations and also personal and social requirements for permanent education.

"This calls for some fundamental changes in particular phases of education, such as will be reflected in:

- a radical change in the conceptions and structure of education, and primarily in changes of the curricula and programmes, which will be adjusted to a maximum extent to the needs of associated labour;
- a differentiation of curricula and programmes and a change of the organisation and system of studies, taking into account the different levels of previous education of those studying and the fact that they will comprise an ever-increasing number of people who have already started to work, some of whom will be studying and working at the same time, while others will have temporarily ceased working, so that, as a consequence of this, periods of study will alternate with periods of work;
- the pedagogical process, based on the results of modern sciences, and on the social practice of the self-managing society in which the pupil or student acquires education working together with his teacher;
- effective and shorter studies;
- a system of higher learning and post-graduate studies, so guided as to satisfy the priority needs of the development of society, the economy and science, and enable the most able and talented persons to engage in development and other scientific research."

Chapter III

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE: THE SITUATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The formal school system of the United States - including the adult educators, colleges, and universities - has made little serious effort to tap the extensive resources contained in educational opportunity programmes provided unilaterally by American labour unions. This fact is all the more regrettable since it is apparent that only a small percentage of American workers are able to take advantage of seemingly readily accessible educational opportunities.

These educational programmes cover almost every conceivable form of education and training including basic literacy; high school equivalency; vocational, technical, and career education; college-level, advanced degree, and post-doctoral study and research for workers; and, in some instances, for the families of workers. These opportunities are generally made available for part-time, afterwork study, but, depending on the educational level, the needs of the company, and the provisions in the collective agreement, employees are provided with paid leaves of absence, released time from the job, and on-the-job training and education.

Unfortunately, these programmes are independently conceived and administered unilaterally with little or no co-operation among corporations, educational agencies, unions, or government. There is no common meeting ground for discussion of the successes or failures of these programmes, for joint experimentation, or even for the sharing of information in the mutual interest of all parties. Unilateral programming, in terms of special interest and resistance to co-operation with government or with each other, has occasionally been breached ineffectively by such attempts as the "plans for progress" programme and other specialised efforts for minority group training and upgrading programmes. Unlike some European countries, the United States has no regularly functioning body composed of appropriate representatives of management, labour, government and professional education which could provide a forum for a continuing discussion of educational opportunity programmes. There is no management organisation which can assert a national position on the specifics of collective bargaining or on national educational opportunity programmes such as those which exist in Demnark, Sweden, France, and other countries. The AFLCIO would not consider, much less attempt to negotiate for its constituent international unions as do the national union centres in Scandinavia, France, Israel, and other countries.

Yet, despite the fact that the United States has not yet achieved a national planning mechanism for initiating, administering, and evaluating educational opportunity programmes, the availability of educational opportunity for workers and their families can be compared favourably with what actually exists in most countries. The following brief review of American management and labour efforts will highlight the fact that a number of innovative programmes are being offered to American workers and their families through unilateral actions by one of the parties or through collective bargaining agreements.

A. COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND EDUCATION

In its report on Training and Retraining Provisions in Major Collective Bargaining Agreements, the United States Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics, "examined 1,823 major collective bargaining agreements each covering 1,000 workers or more". The 1969 study indicated that "fewer than 20 per cent (344) of the 1,823 major collective bargaining agreements contained training or retraining provisions". These applied to 2.4 million or 32 per cent of the 7.3 million workers. The report further pointed out that training and re-training clauses were concentrated in six industries, each of which accounted for 20 provisions or more. These industries included transportation equipment, communications, machinery (except electrical), primary metals, and food. "Significantly", notes the report, "these are industries which have experienced continual technological development and accordingly have required:

a) programmes to upgrade and keep skills current and/or
b) programmes to replace obsolete skills for the technologically displaced.

In total, the six industries represented over half the training clauses and nearly three-quarters of the workers covered (72.5 per cent). Auto and steel agreements accounted for almost over half of these workers".

A 1974 printout of the Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS) provides a five-area breakdown of the educational opportunity clauses in major collective bargaining agreements, each covering 1,000 workers or more. The five areas include:

a) Educational leave, 138 companies (1,513,950 workers);

b) Apprentice training, 563 companies (2,855,550 workers);
c) Training 519 companies (3,222,250 workers);
d) Tuition aid, 88 companies (831,550 workers);
e) Training funds, 34 companies (153,850 workers).

It can be seen at a glance, even from the limited statistics available to the BLS, that a considerable variety of educational opportunities have become the subject of collective bargaining. This fact will be reinforced by the discussion which follows. It should be noted at the outset that only a few outstanding examples have been included. Very little is mentioned about apprentice training and training, although these are both significant aspects of educational opportunity for American workers and they are areas within which much activity and innovation is taking place. It is hoped that the emphasis on Educational leave, Tuition aid, and Training funds will suffice to make the case in this chapter.

B. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

The following briefly outlines the American position as to educational leave and provides some examples of paid and unpaid leave in the public and private sectors of its economy. It points up, rather than minimises, the need for a study of educational leave in the United States. Like their European counterparts, Americans know little about the participation rates among those eligible for leave; what kinds of people take leave, and for how long a period. It is not possible to assess the costs in direct financial aid or in production man hours lost, for these figures have not been compiled. It may be that these figures are obscured even within the specific enterprise or public agency granting such leaves.

In the largest part, American leave provisions cover employed workers who are eligible for the leave based upon a minimum of job seniority. Leave is granted by public agencies and private enterprises for:

a) vocational and career education,
b) college education which stresses career advancement, and
c) for trade union education.

When a worker is on a paid leave of absence, his right to return to the job is generally protected within some limits, seniority rights are almost always maintained, and in some cases are permitted to accumulate during the study leave. Pension rights and insurance benefits appear to be most often maintained by the company.

Educational leave opportunities in the private sector of the American economy are not the consequence of any federal or state law.

So far as can be determined at this point, no such law has ever been considered by a legislative body in the United States. There exist, however, legislation, presidential executive orders, and civil service regulations in the public sector which provide for educational leave for public employees who require education and training to improve their job performance or to develop their capacity to assume greater responsibilities. The Government Employees Training Act (Public Law 85-507) Executive Order 10800, presidential policy and civil service regulations are cited as examples of these opportunities. State administrative bodies also provide opportunities for education and training.

The Government Employees Training Act provides that each agency of the federal government:

> ... shall prepare, establish and place in effect a program or programs, and a plan or plans thereunder ... for the training of employees in or under such a department by, and through Government facilities and non-government facilities in order to increase economy and efficiency in the operations of the department and to raise the standards of performance by employees of their official duties to the minimum level of proficiency. Section 10 of the Act further provides that employees being given the training can be paid all or part of their salary or compensation. Moreover, expenses necessary to training such as travel and per diem, transportation of family, household effects, tuition, books and materials, etc., may also be paid by the Government.

Some statistics available for 1964 indicate that 19 Federal agencies authorised 509 employees to take special advanced training. This involved the granting of long term leave with pay. Four agencies accounted for nearly 80 per cent of these totals: the Department of Defense (239), National Aeronautics and Space Administration (60), Agriculture (52) and the Department of Commerce (50). Of the 509 employees who received this training, 375 or 74 per cent were employed as scientists and engineers or as technicians who provided support to scientists and engineers. The next largest group, 63 or 12 per cent, occupied executive or administrative positions.

Other examples of federal support to education and training are the Welfare Amendments of 1962 (Public Law 87-543), which provide federal matching funds to state and locally administered training programmes that emphasize the enhancement of professional qualifications of social welfare personnel. Under these provisions the Middlesex County Welfare Board in 1974 "voted to raise the stipend to staff members on educational leave from $500 to $600 a month. The $100-a-month hike now affects some 10 staffers in graduate social work programmes".

Despite the fact that statistics are not available, this form of public and private expenditure on paid educational leave represents substantial allocations made for the purpose of improvement of job performance and career development.

Another, rather substantial, sum is that which trade unions expend for paid educational leave for trade union representatives at all levels to attend labour education activities. Some twenty to thirty thousand trade union leaders are authorised by corporations each summer to take educational, union, or personal leaves of absence to attend the union's one-week residential schools often conducted in co-operation with a state university or college.

The union pays the wages, expenses, and tuition costs of the resident school. The company simply continues the employee's insurance and other benefits without interruption. Seniority is not affected by these short-term programmes. Unions also very often conduct steward training programmes, conferences, and short-term resident programmes for specific leaders, such as a three-day programme for local union trustees, or pension specialists, or education counsellors. In these cases, companies allow the time off and the union finances the activity and provides wage reimbursement to the student. In some instances, unions and management formally or informally agree that management will continue to provide the employee with his weekly salary and the union will pay all other expenses of the programme.

C. SOME NEGOTIATED AGREEMENTS

It might prove beneficial to examine in detail some key collective bargaining agreement clauses that highlight various kinds of paid or unpaid educational leave opportunities.

As indicated above, some 138 companies have agreed through collective bargaining to provide educational leave to the 1.5 million workers covered under these agreements.

Employers rarely raise any objection to paying lost time to an employee, or even overtime wages, provided the individual is pursuing a course of study or training desired by the employer.

A General Motors-UAW provision seems to have developed out of concern for veterans' benefits and then to have been applied to all who **attained** seniority rights. It offers the possibility of leaves that exceed one year. An important aspect is the fact that seniority accumulates during the leave.

Educational leave of absence was written into the contracts signed by G.M. with the UAW and the IUE in 1967. The clauses cover:

> Employee veterans who have acquired seniority and other employees with seniority of one or more years who desire to further their

> education may make application for a leave of absence for that purpose.
>
> One continuous leave of absence for such education will be granted to eligible employees for a period not to exceed twelve months, subject to the conditions set forth in Paragraph III of this agreement. Additional leaves of absence may be granted, at the option of local management. Seniority shall accumulate during such leaves of absence.

The J.I. Case-UAW clause is significant in that it provides an orderly system for a leave of absence up to four years and because it attempts to provide financial assistance by making part-time or periodic employment available to employees on leave. The leave appears to be limited to a college career programme.

> For the purpose of enabling an employee who had completed at least one year's service to pursue an educational programme toward a college degree, the company shall grant a leave of absence upon application of the employee. Such leave of absence shall not exceed one year; however, this leave may be extended from year to year for a maximum of four years provided application is made prior to the expiration of such leave and the employee can show proof of satisfactory grades and has not accepted full-time employment elsewhere. An employee on educational leave shall be offered suitable summer or temporary employment when such is available. However, he may not exercise seniority to displace another employee during such periods.

A UAW-Bendix Corporation clause provides for educational leaves which can be extended beyond one year. It also limits the right of an employee who has returned to work to receive another leave by requiring at least one additional year in the work place. A weakness in the clause is the requirement that the worker be technically classified as a voluntary quit. This approach adds to the anxiety of the worker as to whether or not he will be re-employed. The clause offers the rehired employee the seniority he held when he commenced his leave but seniority does not accumulate for the period of the leave.

A rather large number of companies and unions negotiated special educational leaves of absence for veterans. The following is a typical clause:

> Leaves of absence for Veterans, whose present seniority predates their military service (this shall not be retroactive), shall be granted as follows:
>
> 1. the employee must present bona fide evidence that he is entering an approved Training School. The question of whether

the Training School is approved will be mutually agreed to between the Company and the Union.

2. When the services of the employee are not immediately required and there are employees within the plant capable of doing his work.
3. Any Leaves of Absence granted shall be for a period of one year. This may be renewed within five days of the expiration of his leave and fulfils the requirements of Paragraph 1 above.
4. Veterans granted leaves of Absence as herein outlined must report back to the Company available for work within thirty days after completion of their course, otherwise they shall forfeit all of their seniority rights. Any digression from the procedure must be mutually agreed to by the Company and the Union.

A series of clauses in the Douglas Aircraft-UAW agreement spells out a reasonable educational leave provision. The question of payment of wages is not mandated nor is it ruled out by the contract.

a) Eligibility: An employee with at least ninety days continuous employment may, upon written request, be granted an educational leave of absence. Such leaves shall be limited to situations where the employee would be required to devote time during his working hours to the pursuit of learning at an institution acceptable to the Company.

b) Proof of Enrolment: To qualify for such leave the employee must submit sufficient proof of enrolment in the institution at least thirty days prior to the commencement of instruction.

c) Duration: Such leave shall extend for the period of attendance or thirteen months' period whichever is the shorter. The Company may extend such leave upon written request where good and sufficient proof is presented that such extension is for the purpose of continuous attendance at the educational institution. In no case shall such leave extend beyond a total of twenty-two months.

d) Rights on Return: Upon expiration of such leave or termination of attendance, the employee shall be entitled to exercise his seniority in his former job occupation in accordance with applicable contractual layoff and displacement provisions, provided the employee, within ten days after termination of such attendance, notifies the Company in writing of his intention to return to active employment within thirty days of the termination of such attendance. Upon return, the employee shall be required to furnish good and sufficient evidence of attendance at the institution.

e) Change of institution: Should an employee wish to change institutions during the term of such leave, he must notify

> the Company of such intent in writing with full and complete information relative to the new institution and the reasons for such change. Such leave shall remain in effect only where the Company approves such change.

Most companies appear to consider leaves of absence as justified for academic study or in resident trade schools. The UAW-International Harvester agreement illustrates this view.

> A leave of absence for a period not to exceed one year without loss of seniority will be granted an employee who has at least one year of seniority in order that the employee may attend a recognised college, university, trade or technical school full time provided that the course of instruction is related to the employee's employment opportunities with the Company. A request for a leave of absence to attend primary or high school will be regarded as being within the intent of this Sub-section (b) and the schooling will be regarded as being related to the employee's employment opportunities with the Company. Before receiving the leave, or an extension thereof, the employee shall submit to the Company satisfactory evidence that the college, university, or school has accepted him as a student, and on the expiration of each semester or other school term, shall submit proof of attendance during such term. Such leaves may be extended for additional periods not to exceed one year each.

A significant feature of this agreement was the fact that the company and the union considered using other fund accumulations (SUB) to finance their educational activities. The clause also openly suggests that education and training not only enhance careers but reduce the danger of layoffs.

Perhaps the most unusual collective bargaining clause is that which provides for an optional leave programme which can be taken by senior employees at a time of layoff. This helps keep younger workers on the job and it means full income maintenance for the worker who voluntarily takes optional leave. This programme was signed into agreements between the UAW and the Mack Truck Corporation and has since been negotiated with other companies.

> Effective 1st November, 1974, the order of layoff has been reversed under the new Optional Leave Programme. Should a lay-off be scheduled to take place from any bargaining unit, of any employee with one or more years of service, the longest service employee in that same classification, in the same department, with ten or more years of service, may, at the employee's option, elect to take the layoff instead. The layoff may range from a minimum of eight weeks to a maximum of thirteen weeks.

> This Optional Leave Benefit is unrelated to any unemployment compensation system requirements or the rules of the Supplemental Unemployment Benefits programme. The employee is not required to report to the Company and for the period of the leave the time is strictly the employee's own. The rate of pay for the Optional Leave is the same as the weekly sick and accidental benefits.

A comprehensive and straightforward clause on paid educational leave was negotiated by the Hospital and Institutional Workers' Union Local 250, AFL-CIO and the Kaiser Foundation Hospitals.

> Article XVIII - Paid Educational Leave
>
> After the completion of two full years of service, employees shall begin to earn one week paid educational leave per year accumulative to the maximum of four weeks. Service accrued prior to 1st November 1970 shall count towards the maximum of three years (two year waiting period plus one week accrued leave which may be taken during the period of this agreement). Paid educational leave may be taken by full days or by hourly increments as time away from the job.

District Council 37, AFSCME (American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees) whose impressive educational programme based upon a negotiated training trust fund is discussed elsewhere in this chapter, protects time spent on paid leaves of absence from encroaching upon regular annual leave credits.

> Employees who are on agency approved work-study paid leaves of absence shall not have annual leave credits deducted unless they actually request and take such annual leave.

Local 1199, Drug and Hospital Workers Union, which bases its health care-oriented training and education programme on a percentage of payroll contribution by management to a training fund, provides for financial assistance to those engaged in full-time study.

> Students in full-time study programmes sponsored by the Fund are released from their hospital jobs and receive a training stipend of 85 per cent of their net salary from the Fund. Students continue to receive all union health benefits, vacations and holidays and continue to accumulate service credit under the Local 1199 Hospital Pension Fund. Taxes are not removed from the stipends since the bulk of money is tax free.

The materials in this section are an illustrative rather than a definitive presentation of the status of paid educational leave in the United States. It might be appropriate to conclude this section with a reference to the situation in the American teaching profession which has integrated paid educational leave (sabbaticals) into its work pattern.

It is reported in the press of Wednesday, 1st January 1975 that some 400,000 members of the National Education Association are eligible for a sabbatical leave. Some 50,000 of these are on leave at any particular time. These figures would be increased if American Federated Teachers and all other teachers and professors were included.

It is also interesting to note here that the American Federation of Teachers' new 'Educare' programme includes the demand that a system of 'worker sabbaticals' be established in the United States.

Tuition aid: originally conceived as an employee benefit, tuition refund programmes in the United States have come to be viewed as a training tool. Over the years, most American corporations have broadened the tuition refund opportunities to include all their employees. The types of courses workers can pursue are less restricted and the financial payments have been increased to pay the largest share of the costs including, in some cases, tuition, fees, books, travel, and subsistence costs. Some companies permit a limited number of paid hours off the job to employees participating in a specialised study programme. Despite the general easing all along the line, participation in programmes of this type has been at the median rate of only 4.4 per cent of those eligible.

Roger O'Meara tells us in a 1970 NICB study that "the tuition-aid allowances paid to employees participating in the plans of 162 companies during 1967 totalled nearly $17 million. Available figures show that, in the median company:

a) tuition-aid plan costs equalled .04 per cent of payroll costs;
b) the highest allowance paid to a single employee was $657.50 and the lowest, $13.75;
c) the average payment per plan participant was $120.65; and
d) the average payment per eligible employee was $4.91.

Most companies find their plan costs go up from one year to the next. They ascribe this to the unrelenting rise in tuition and other school charges, the recurring necessity for liberalising plan benefits, and the accelerating growth in the number of employees intent on continuing their education.

Plan results

Available employee participation rates, for the most part, antedate the intensified efforts that many companies are now making to promote their plans on a broader scale. In 1967 the median rate of plan participation among eligible employees in 155 companies was only 4.4 per cent. A majority of the participants were salaried male employees; half of them engineers, scientists or technicians, and about a fifth supervisors.

On the whole, the 4.4 per cent rate represented an increase over previous years. Many of the companies, however, expect far more substantial increases in the years ahead. They cite the improvements constantly being made in plan benefits, the development of new and better promotional techniques, the more active hand that supervisors are taking in supporting the plans, the proven attraction that master's and doctoral degrees have for newly hired college graduates, and the growing awareness among employees at all job levels that continuing education will help them get ahead.

How well a plan is achieving its objectives defies accurate measurement. Too many intangibles are involved. It would be impossible, for instance, to determine precisely how much the new knowledge that an employee acquires in a tuition-aid course contributes to improving his productivity, bolstering his morale, or enriching his life.

Well-intentioned, powerful companies not usually accustomed to having any of their programmes fail, are puzzling over their inability to increase participation in tuition refund programmes. Perhaps one might increase participation through educational conselling; helping workers to establish realistic, more readily attainable educational goals; released time to register for and pursue courses; incentive payments for goal completion; and some form of company recognition of the individual's efforts through increased income, job responsibilities, or scholarship for further study. Some research and experimentation in this area would be helpful to all concerned. For the present let us explore the nature, content, and problems of two prominent attempts developed through collective bargaining.

i) General Motors - United Automobile Workers (UAW) Tuition Refund Plan

Background: The General Motors-UAW tuition refund plan was negotiated for the first time in September 1964. It was developed out of a company need for employees with specialised skills and as a result of UAW concern for the education of its members. The plan, which originally provided tuition refunds of up to $250 per calendar year, was changed in collective bargaining sessions in 1967 to $350 maximum; 1971 - $500 maximum; 1973 - $750 maximum. In these negotiations the UAW brought additional educational demands to the table. These included educational leaves of absence - particularly for veterans - which were written into the agreement, and apprenticeship and upgrading training programmes upon which some agreements were reached. In the 1970 negotiations the UAW proposed that a training and education fund be established. No agreement was reached on this proposal. In 1973 a new hire orientation programme was added to the contract. This programme was to be provided jointly by the company and the union.

During this period the company unilaterally provided management training programmes, scholarship and fellowship programmes, and other programmes thus far not subject to the collective bargaining process. The union conducted its own labour education programme which at one point was estimated to cost $750,000 a year. The addition of the Walter and May Reuther family education centre has increased the union's annual expenditure on education.

Types of courses: Courses to be approved under the plan will include those related to maintaining and improving the employee's skill in performing his job or contributing to his general development within the corporation. The following programmes are considered job related and will be approved when the needs cannot be met within the corporation:

- Courses which will improve the employee's skill on his present job.
- Courses which relate to the next job in the logical development of an employee's career.
- Courses which will prepare an employee for openings that are expected to occur in the future and for which a sufficient number of qualified employees is not available.
- Courses taken to complete the requirements for a grammar school certificate or high school diploma.
- Any literacy courses or courses in fundamental reading and mathematics. These include courses usually designed to teach sixth grade competency in reading, writing and numerical skills.
- Any required or pertinent elective courses taken in a degree-seeking programme in a field related to the employee's job or appropriate to his career in General Motors Corporation.
- Courses of instruction in approved educational or training institutions directed towards qualifying an employee as an apprentice in the skilled trades.

Correspondence courses: The Tuition Refund Plan is intended to cover courses taken at approved local institutions, and correspondence courses are not included under its general provisions. Under exceptional circumstances, correspondence courses offered by well-recognised institutions may be approved but only if comparable instruction is not available locally.

While the tuition refund programme is designed as an off-the-job, part-time, unpaid programme, there are instances where the company has provided two or three hours per week to an employee whose education efforts require time off with pay. The UAW brochure on tuition refund programmes phrases the ideas as follows:

> "Participation in the tuition refund programme is, of course entirely voluntary. This usually means that class attendance and home work assignments are to be completed in the employee's own time. Generally speaking special shift assignments to enable an employee to attend class are not provided. However, such problems as those would be resolved at the local union level".

Participation rate: There are some 400,000 General Motors workers eligible for tuition refund study. But only a small percentage take advantage of the opportunity and much of the potential funds are unused.

GM reports that in 1970, 18,000 employees continued their education through participation in the tuition refund plan. In 1970 employees studying under the GM plan were awarded 249 bachelor's degrees and 174 graduate degrees. Tuition refunds under the plan, together with individual graduate fellowships granted to employees by the corporation, came to $2,900,000. It is not clear in this statement what level of employee is included nor how many were on individual fellowships. In 1973 some 6,000 blue collar members of the UAW participated in the plan at a cost of about $700,000. Individual refunds ranged from about $60 to $285.

Problems and perspectives: Unfortunately the rate of participation in this plan fits the national average of less than 4 per cent utilisation of this kind of programme, despite the fact that both the corporation and the union appear to wish for greater participation.

Why aren't more UAW members taking advantage of the GM plan which is among the more broadly interpreted plans?

What are the characteristics, career aspirations, and physical location of those who participate in the programme?

Would some revisions in the plan make it any more accessible or attractive to workers?

One might also ask: Is tuition refund enough? Should all fees and books be included? Should transportation and dinner allowances be considered? Can education be provided on a lost-time basis? All these and other provisions are offered by management to other forms of training opportunities although usually confined to professional or management level personnel.

Layoffs: General Motors is among those American corporations who have recently laid off a great number of their employees. At the time of writing some 200,000 GM workers are laid off with the date of return unclear. Most of these employees are eligible for a combination of unemployment insurance and payments for a negotiated supplementary unemployment benefit fund. Most of these workers will be on the company's recall list and would have preference rights to re-employment according to their seniority.

While it would appear to be useful to the company, the individual and society itself to enrol as many as possible of these workers in an education or training programme neither the company nor the union have so far geared themselves up to make this possible. The educational system doesn't seem to have given the matter any thought whatsoever!

The terms of the GM-UAW tuition refund plan seem to include payment for tuition refund to those who have 'seniority during the entire period of a course of study and ..... (who are) in active service at the beginning of the course for which tuition is to be refunded'. This last clause would appear to mean that tuition refunds will be made to those laid-off workers who had been in a study programme at the time of layoff. But the vast majority of laid-off workers would appear to be ineligible for the education benefit at a time when they could most readily profit from it. Perhaps this matter will be discussed in subsequent negotiations. The parties might also be able to develop some co-operative action with the manpower and education departments of the federal or state governments. Layoffs may unfortunately become a more common problem in the next few years. Perhaps a part of the distress can be mitigated by a sensible co-ordination between periods of work and study.

ii) General Electric - Interaction Union of Electrical Radio and Machine Workers (IUE) Individual Development Programme

Background: The General Electric Individual Development Programme was negotiated in 1969-70 at the initiative of the IUE which spoke for a co-ordinated bargaining group of eleven unions. The union sought to obtain educational opportunity for all workers and their families through a tuition refund programme and a GE-IUE educational advancement fund. A factor which encouraged both management and the union to consider seriously a broad scheme of educational opportunity for all workers was the pressure for upgrading and career development education applied by minority groups newly entering General Electric. The final agreement provided for a tuition refund programme of $400 per worker per year. Some 144,000 workers were covered. Family members were not eligible. No fund was established. The programme has not been changed in subsequent negotiations.

Participation rate: Participation in this programme is shockingly low. A 1971 report on its first year's activity indicates that only 600 persons enrolled under the provisions of this programme at the negligible cost to the company of less than $200,000.

Problems and perspectives: The first problem in connection with the GE-IUE programme is that it is not being used by workers. An easy but unbelievable conclusion might be that the workers are not interested. Although the rate of participation is an embarrassment for the company and the union, they have been unable or unwilling to promote the programme effectively.

The union, supported by a grant from the United States Department of Labour, made an extraordinary effort to encourage workers to participate in the first year or two of the Individual Development Programme. The company did not co-operate with this effort. Nevertheless the company did unilaterally attempt to distribute brochures, manuals and instructions to local management and some employees and also engaged in some modest public relations attempts to make known the availability of the Individual Development Programme.

Although union and company representatives met in sub-committee on occasion over the years, the company never implemented a programme mutually designed to assist workers to participate in the Individual Development Programme.

After the initial impetus, neither the union nor the company has made any effective attempt to realise the potential latent in the programme.

It has been rumoured that GE was prepared to re-negotiate changes and improvements in the plan in subsequent negotiations but it appears the union did not raise the matter with the company at the collective bargaining table.

It is suggested here that the unnecessary limitation on reimbursement costs, the lack of effective co-operation between the company and the union and the lack of any mutual plan for promoting and administering the programme are among the more significant reasons for the failure of the individual development programme.

D. EDUCATION AND TRAINING FUNDS

Labour and management, through collective bargaining, have established a significant number of education and training funds based upon a fixed sum payment by management into a fund on a specified basis. This might be a cents per hour payment, a specified annual sum per employee, or a designated sum for the length of the contract, or some other variation. Programmes developed under the aegis of these funds appear to be stimulating high levels of worker participation. One fund reports that over 50 per cent of its eligible membership have participated in programmes developed through the fund's efforts. Another outstanding education and cultural trust fund has been able to include the whole of its membership in various aspects of its educational programme. Still another union has been able to mount an outstanding vocational teacher training programme annually which has made a significant impact on keeping its apprentice instructors abreast of new technology in the trade. Several unions which administer funds of this type have provided educational opportunities for husbands, wives, or children of their members out of the negotiated fund.

It is interesting to note that when unions began to negotiate these funds it was indicated that the Taft Hartley law seemed to prohibit such funds. On 7th July 1969 a bill was introduced by Senator Williams of New Jersey to amend section 302A of the Labour Management Relations Act of 1947 to permit employer contributions to trust funds to provide employees, their families, and dependents with scholarships for study at educational institutions, or to establish child care centres for pre-school and school age dependents of employees. The bill was signed by President Nixon in October 1969.

i) UAW - General Motors Training and Education Fund

The UAW brought a most interesting and far-reaching proposal for a training and education fund to the GM negotiating table in 1970 to be funded by a ¼ cent per hour worker contribution by General Motors. Although the proposal was not accepted by GM it contained a sufficient number of innovative concepts to warrant a discussion in this chapter.

In its rationale for the fund the UAW stated: "Neither the worker nor his child should have to regard factory work as a dead end, and working in a General Motors plant should not foreclose an employee's future or that of his children".

Emphasizing the changing composition and character of the ever more youthful General Motors working population, the UAW asserted that: "This can only mean changed attitudes at the work place, different views of the authority of management, a yearning for greater self-reliance and an independence of spirit. The corporation some years ago took cognizance of the change in mood as compared with an earlier generation of General Motors workers and each day it discovers that the 'old' way of doing things is not necessarily valid or accepted.

"This is equally true within the union, for, after all, the union member is a General Motors employee.

We in the UAW try to meet this problem and its effect on the internal organisation of the union in many ways - educational classes, adult education, extension courses, correspondence courses, classes to permit achievement of a high school diploma, summer schools, winter institutes, etc. While these efforts are valuable, we find that more and something different is required. We find moreover that the concept of worker education must now be superseded by the concept of family education.

To help meet this problem, the UAW has constructed a Family Education Centre on Black Lake in Michigan ... at the UAW Family Education Centre we plan to raise labour education to new and higher levels. We will reach out to the families of our members as they participated in the programme of the centre and through them build additional bridges of contact with the entire community.

The UAW proposes to make its Family Education Centre 'a model of the good life - lived in a free, open, healthy and beautiful environment'.

The programme at the centre will be designed to include everyone, member and spouse ..... during the summer months when children ..... can accompany their parents ..... the children will enjoy the advantages of a well organised programme in a beautiful natural setting and family activities will also be scheduled to bring parents and children together. During the period of the year when the children are in school, the worker and his/her spouse will participate in the educational programme".

Although the UAW has not yet convinced General Motors that it should participate in the family education concept, the union has proceeded with the purchase and development of its family education centre at Black Lake and is financing the innovative educational programme out of its own funds.

ii) District 37, State, County and Municipal Employees - City of New York Education and Training Trust Fund

District 37 American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees was among the first unions in the public sector to negotiate educational benefits for its members through a training trust fund plan financed by New York City. In the initial agreement of 1969 the amount of $25 per employee covered by the contract was contributed by the city. Subsequent negotiations have increased the contribution per employee per contract term to $50, bringing the total available funds to over $1 million per year for some 60,000 eligible employees. The programme has been a startling success. Additional unions who hold contracts with the city have followed the lead of District 37.

In 1969 the clause relating to the training fund stated:

> For the term of this contract, the City agrees to allocate a fund equal to $25 for each employee covered by this contract. The fund shall be used to provide additional training and education opportunities beyond those presently provided by the Department of Personnel, designed to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of employees covered by this contract, and to prepare them for advancement and upgrading.
>
> The City Department of Personnel will plan, administer, and co-ordinate and evaluate all training programmes initiated pursuant to this contract. The Department of Personnel shall consult, on a regular and continuing basis, with the Union on

> its plans for all such programmes, and the Union shall participate in the selection and recruitment of employees receiving such training.

Even in the first year the programme proved its viability, but the union found itself handicapped by bureaucracy and control which resided in the city Department of Personnel. The union felt the Department of Personnel did not understand the nature of this new programme and called in succeeding negotiations for a freer role in planning and developing educational opportunity programmes for its members.

> The City's contribution to all existing and any newly negotiated Training Fund agreements may be applied, by the agreement of the parties, to a mutually agreed upon Training Trust Fund for the purpose of establishing and administering a plan to provide opportunities for training and education for covered employees beyond those provided by the Department of Personnel.
> The Training Trust Fund shall plan, administer and co-ordinate all training programmes to be financed by the Training Fund. Such training programmes shall be designed to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of employees covered by the agreement and to prepare such persons for advancement and upgrading.
> The Training Trust Funds and training programmes shall be subject to fiscal audit by the Comptroller of the City of New York and to prior approval and performance audit by the Department of Personnel.
> All factual data necessary to evaluate the programmes shall be furnished to the Department of Personnel by the Training Trust Fund. The Department of Personnel shall respond within 30 days stating its objections, if any, to the proposed programme.

This clause shifted to the union the positive role in developing and administering the educational programmes and assigned the task of auditor and evaluator to city agencies.

Rationale: 'The City Wide Training Fund', writes the union, 'established in accordance with city contracts with several locals of District 37 AFSCME, is intended to provide training opportunities that will help employees to improve their performance in their current jobs, as well as prepare them for career advancement. We are widening the horizons of our members, while at the same time preparing them for expanded career opportunities - we're doing what American labour has dreamed of doing for 140 years'.

Unique Features

1. The programme is administered by the union and audited and evaluated by the city employer.

2. The programme offers basic literacy, high school equivalency, vocational and career training, and college level studies, including labour studies. Most of these programmes are offered in a building owned by the union. District 37 has established an accredited 'labour college' in co-operation with New Rochelle College. So close is the symbolic relationship of the union and New Rochelle College that part of the union building has been designated as the District 37 Downtown Campus of New Rochelle College.

Participation: In 1972, 43,000 people took part in District 37's education activities. Some 3,800 members engaged themselves in traditional union education. It includes about 5,000 in career training and upgrading. It also includes about 8,000 people in peripheral activities (travel, ballet, retiree's activities, summer camp, art classes). This almost unbelievable participation rate was achieved by the enthusiasm and imagination of the union education staff; the urgency of the members' needs for upgrading skills and knowledge; and the loyalty, trust, and intimacy developed among students, union staff, and faculty.

The building supplied by the union for the education programme is a beehive of educational activity. The existence of the training trust fund provides the union with a predictable annual income. The union has been able to develop a staff and faculty capable of planning, administering, and co-ordinating the kinds of educational activities most immediately relevant to its members. The union is committed to upgrading programmes even though they may mean that some upgrading programme graduates leave the jurisdiction of the union - as have about 400 nurses aides who became licensed practical nurses.

This helpful attitude, the friendship and concern for their educational problems and fears, draws these many thousands of workers to a building in downtown New York, on the extreme west side, in the dark of night, when most buildings in the area are deserted. Many of these workers have schools much closer to their homes which offer courses in high school equivalency preparation, for example, but still some 1,100 male and female workers come together in the union school where they feel comfortable. Few drop out before completing their programmes. All who require it receive as much individual attention as needed.

In contrast to the competition emphasized in some schools, it is a common occurrence for one union student to assist his or her fellow workers to prepare for the exams.

The union's high school equivalency programme is reputed to be the strongest in New York City, with the lowest attrition rate and highest percentage of students passing the equivalency exam. Its popularity is such that there has never been, in its four-year span, enough space to accommodate all those who apply. This excess of applications to available spaces applies as well to other programmes offered by the union and particularly to the college tuition refund programme which currently enrols 1,400 union members. The union's method of selecting candidates for tuition refund is refreshingly unique and impartial. There are no needs tests, embarrassing qualifying interviews, or other administrative hassles. If the applications exceed available funds, the individuals are selected by lottery with a priority status for those who are temporarily denied support. The union has also made adjustments in the amount of tuition refund offered in a particular year based upon the desire to reach the greatest number with a reasonably decent refund programme. From the fall of 1969 through fall 1973 the union spent some $239,613,30 in college tuition refunds.

iii) International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers
Local 3(IBEW)-New York Electrical Contractors Industry Education and Cultural Trust Fund.

Local 3 IBEW is a driving force in the development of greater educational opportunities for workers and their families. With a membership of highly skilled, relatively well paid workers, the local attained a central role in New York City's construction industry and in its labour and political affairs. Local 3 IBEW has pioneered in trade union education, adult worker liberal arts education, political education, and education-through-travel programmes. It is internationally known for its successful Bayberry Land year-round residential education programme and for its support to the development and administration of the New York Labour College associated with Empire State College.

Local 3 IBEW is undoubtedly unique in character, but it is neither isolated nor working in a vacuum, as can be seen in the description of other union experiments in this paper. Local 3 describes the Joint Industry Board of the Electrical Industry which was established in New York in 1943 as the method used to "administer all of the plans and benefits agreed to by local Union No. 3 IBEW and employer negotiators providing the greatest benefit coverage of its kind in the history of the labour movement".

Management's view of the situation, as expressed by Armand D'Angelo, president of the joint board, seems equally strong. "The electrical industry in the New York City area is widely considered the most completely integrated industry in America, in the sense that its management and labour are not only committed to identical goals but are organised to work toward the achievement of these goals on a day-to-day year-round basis".

Thus the Joint Industry Board administers its own workmen's compensation plan; a realty corporation which builds housing, supermarkets, etc., and a pension plan with vesting and portability rights. It provides surgery, dental, optical and disability plans. There are rest home benefits, low-cost housing benefits, annuity funds, jury duty benefits, a children's camp, etc. There are scholarship benefits, grants, tuition refunds, apprentice training plans, and an educational and cultural trust fund. The education and cultural trust fund is financed by a 1 per cent payroll contribution by employers. The fund sponsors a staggering variety of educational programmes and supports innovation and experiments with different methods of bringing the fruits of education to Local 3 members. A 1971 contract illustrates the agreements worked out between Local 3 and industry representatives.

> Effective 1st July, 1971, all Employers shall remit weekly an amount equal to 1 per cent of their gross weekly production payroll covering all employees under this agreement to the Educational and Cultural Trust Fund established for educational, cultural, charitable and philanthropical purposes.

Another clause in the same contract provides:

> The Educational and Cultural Trust Fund will grant Journeymen electricians and other participants qualified and acceptable to attend the School of Labour, Management and Educational courses conducted at Bayberry Land, effective 1st July, 1971, a sum up to $240 for a one week course of study at the conclusion of their studies. Graduates of the course at Bayberry Land who have completed a post graduate course at an accredited college selected by the Joint Board may have the opportunity for additional studies in foreign lands. Two men will be selected each year by competitive examination conducted by the proper authorities, to visit foreign countries.

The amounts paid to workers as reimbursements for salary loss vary in subsequent contracts and the education-through-travel programme has been expanded so that groups of union members have been able to travel in the Caribbean and in Europe. A very successful seminar was held in 1974 in co-operation with the New York State School of Industrial and Labour Relations and the ILO in Geneva.

Since 1948 the Local 3 Scholarship programme which provides annual awards to the sons and daughters of members of Local 3 has awarded some 623 scholarships, having a value of $3,443,400. In 1973 scholarships totalled $293,709. Bayberry Land's 1973 expenditures from the fund were $393,966 including administration costs as well as worker-student stipends. The local provided $51,000 in grants, $116,559 in jury duty benefits, and $263,007 for other cultural activities.

Since 1964 the College Reimbursement Programme has aided participants and their spouses who wish to complete their college education or go on for higher education. A motion was made, seconded and unanimously carried that the Fund pay the annual college tuition of eligible employees and the spouses of eligible employees upon the following conditions.

1. In order for an employee or an employee's spouse to be eligible for the payment of annual college tuition:
    a) the employee must have been employed or available for employment, for a period of at least five years, immediately prior to the date of application, by an employer or employers who contribute to the Joint Industry Board of the Electrical Industry; and
    b) the employee or the employee's spouse must be a high school graduate; and
    c) the employee or the employee's spouse must have matriculated at an accredited college or university;
2. The amount paid to the employee shall consist of the annual tuition paid to the college, plus $100 per annum for expenses;
3. The Board of Trustees or a sub-committee thereof shall have the sole right to determine to which applicants the award of annual college tuition shall be made.

During the school year 1972-1973, 172 participants or their spouses accumulated 2,201 college credits and were reimbursed $111,300. Since the inception of this programme, $494,135.95 has been paid to help people gain college credits.

The Industry Education and Cultural Trust Fund balance as of 30th September, 1973 was $10,798,165 with an employer contribution of $2,152,537, an investment income of $179,165, and an expenditure of $1,821,223 for the 1972-73 fiscal year.

The Joint Industry Board also offers a five-year apprentice training programme which consists of more than 140 hours of school per year in addition to on-the-job training. In 1962 the joint board apprentice programme took the lead and made "a significant breakthrough in job opportunities in skilled employment for minority group workers." Thousands of other Local 3 members have participated in vocational training courses offered by the union's electronic wiring school. Over a thousand members learned exhibition and switchboard wiring.

The local offers a wide range of liberal arts courses, including high school equivalency programmes, consumer guidance courses, world affairs classes, educational tours of the United Nations, conferences on "the full employment economy", and courses in citizenship education.

Labour education in the traditional bread and butter courses for trade unionists is built into the structure of the Local 3's educational activities. Courses in grievance procedure, shop steward training, labour history, labour law, labour book discussions, and courses in labour economics are offered by the union. Over the years, members of Local 3 have taken labour courses at Cooper Union, Cornell University School of Labour Relations, the New School for Social Research, and other well-known schools. Perhaps the most significant innovation designed to meet not only the needs of Local 3 and of New York labour generally but those of all New York City residents is the founding of the New York City Labour College, spearheaded by Local 3, which also helped to arrange the labour studies programme through Empire State College - Cornell co-operation.

Local 3 is fond of quoting great thinkers on the value of education in society. Perhaps John Dewey best expresses the fullness of the ambition of Local 3 leaders when he wrote "It is in education more than anywhere else that we have sincerely striven to carry into execution the Great American Dream: the vision of a longer and fuller life for the ordinary man, a life of widened freedom, of equal opportunity for each to make of himself all that he is capable of becoming".

iv) Local 1199 Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union (RWDSU) - Hospital League Training and Upgrading Fund

Local 1199, Drug and Hospital Union RWDSU/AFL-CIO, established the Hospital League/Local 1199 Training and Upgrading Fund in 1969 as a result of collective bargaining between the League of Voluntary Hospitals and Homes and Local 1199. It has since been expanded to include additional hospitals and homes outside the league. At the end of 1972, a total of eighty hospitals and nursing homes employing approximately 40,000 members of 1199 were contributing to the fund. The employer's contribution was based upon 1 per cent of their payroll.

> The Fund was established ... to train and upgrade members of the union working in hospitals and homes to higher skills and better paying jobs ... is designed to assist members of the union who desire to advance themselves. It offers members working in the health care field the opportunity to build on a foundation of skills and experience already acquired. In some circles this is called the "career leader" concept. A worker is encouraged to reach for the next rung. Experience should be an upward-moving thing.
>
> It is socially and economically valuable - and completely feasible - to encourage the talents of workers who demonstrate a capacity for advancement. This programme is dedicated to the idea that promotion from within the hospitals and homes should have precedence over outside recruitment.

> One of the key features of the Training and Upgrading programme is that it is prepared to provide the missing tools for advancement. A worker in a hospital may have a lot of on-the-job experience but lack the required high school education. A Spanish-speaking employee may have difficulty in reading and writing English. The fund is prepared to provide basic help in overcoming these obstacles before actual instruction starts in advanced training ... This is a programme to knock down traditional barriers - not create new ones.

Thus the union has developed a variety of remedial programmes and called upon educational agencies to assist in certain basic education needed by members of the union. These courses are considered preliminary to the advanced specialisations and are offered primarily as part-time or after-work courses. They are scheduled so that all work shifts can participate and are offered from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. and from 5 p.m. to 8 p.m.

The advanced classes are full-time courses. Worker-students are granted paid educational leave to participate in courses leading to such certification as licensed practical nurse, registered nurse, and X-ray technician, in a vast array of health-related programmes.

Students in full-time study programmes sponsored by the Fund are released from their hospital jobs and receive a training stipend of 85 per cent of their net salary from the fund. They continue to receive all union health benefits, vacations and holidays and continue to accumulate service credit under the Local 1199 Hospital Pension Fund. Taxes are not removed from the stipends since the bulk of the money is tax free.

The released-time, paid-leave programmes vary in length. The practical nursing programme, for example, takes one year. The registered nurse programme calls for two or two-and-a-half years of study. The X-ray technology programme takes approximately three years.

Thus, the Local 1199 Fund seems to provide a job and career related paid education leave programme, financed by management contribution - a real pioneer undertaking in the United States. The Fund pays full tuition in addition to the 80 per cent of net pay stipend, and also pays for related expenses such as books, uniforms, pre-testing and tutoring. The training and education programmes are clearly related to job specifications in the health industry and are accompanied in each case by a statement of the starting salary and range that can be expected by a student who satisfactorily completes his or her study programme.

Local 1199 appears to have negotiated a career ladder programme for its members in the health industry which is job-advancement oriented but requires considerable liberal arts study in the advanced courses. Paid leaves extend for the required length of a course, many of which require one, two, three and four years of full-time study. Local 1199 asserts the Fund will assist qualified members of 1199 who wish to be trained in any particular health field - and this includes those who wish to become doctors, psychiatrists, dentists, pharmacists, or research workers.

E. FAMILY EDUCATION

Kimberly Clark Corporation

One of the more innovative, unilaterally developed, corporate plans, which blends the features of educational leave, tuition refund, and entitlement to education for family members, is that established by Kimberly Clark Corporation in July 1974.

Each individual is provided with an annual personal "bank account" to spend for approved job related and non-job related educational activities (including course fee, room and board, travel and required texts). In addition, a family education account is established at a rate approximately one-half of the individual's annual allotment. This fund is designed to accumulate over the years and is available for any educational programme desired by members of the employee's family. A third feature of this plan entitles a limited number of employees who have demonstrated a high level of performance to be granted - no strings attached - extended leaves, with pay and at company expense, for the purpose of pursuing "special educational programmes" which clearly relate to corporate objectives.

From all appearances in the first six months of operation, this programme will achieve a high level of participation among eligible employees. The company believes that the fact that the employee actually has ownership of the money will stimulate thought and planning for spending it. The company also stresses that it is the family who decides how much will be spent and upon whom and for what! This, the plans promoters feel certain, will also tend to produce high rates of participation.

Before leaving this chapter, it is necessary to refer to its limitations. To begin with, there are other significant programmes provided by American management which call for recognition and evaluation - for example, those of Bell Labs, DuPont, IBM, AT & T, RCA, the airlines, and a good many others not here mentioned.

Further, there has been no discussion of the government's role in funding special manpower efforts of corporations and unions through on-the-job training and educational advancement programmes such as the A. Phillip Randolph Recruitment and Training Programme and the Urban League Labour Education Advancement Programme. Nothing has been said about the work done by the plumbers' union based upon an $.11 per hour contribution to employers. Nor have we discussed the funds and their activities negotiated or granted by government to the labourers, the carpenters, the maritime workers, the longshoremen, the Service Employees International Union, some Teamster locals, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, and the International Ladies Garment Workers Union.

We have not been able to describe either the efforts of Canadian and Mexican unions, corporations and governments to provide educational opportunity programmes for workers and their families through collective bargaining and legislation. No doubt we have also failed to give attention to many others who are engaged in education, training, and scholarship activities.

F. CONCLUSIONS

One aim of this chapter is to point the way to a more thorough study of educational opportunity programmes as they exist in collective bargaining relationships or in unilateral efforts by American corporations or unions.

The above brief survey of existing educational opportunity programmes for workers and their families contains all the elements of what might some day become a national programme of integrated education and training. The very mass and variety of programmes, the tremendous involvement of management, labour, and governments with educational opportunity programmes, and the pressing needs of workers for help in adjusting to the coming period of economic crisis all make imperative a national discussion of the extant issues, concepts, and practices contained in the efforts to provide education opportunity for workers and their families.

An important focus of a discussion designed to develop a comprehensive national policy must be the relationships among labour management, government and professional education. These parties might be organised into a task force which might be charged broadly with relating the worlds of work and education with special, but not exclusive, emphasis upon paid educational leave, recurrent education and continuing education and training.

This task force might assess the many educational opportunity plans in the United States with a view toward the evaluation of these programmes in terms of the objectives of the enterprise, the needs of the nation and the interests of the individual worker.

Research and financial assistance should be provided by the public authority in the areas of educational counselling, programme design and administration, teacher training, training facilities, subsistence, tuition, travel and other necessary personal and family allowances required to mount broad-gauge efforts to enhance educational opportunities. A higher priority should be given to research about labour education efforts, the education needs and concerns of workers, the efforts of labour and management to develop some measure of educational opportunity for their members and employees, and the reasons why some educational institutions have been very well able to relate to labour and management while so many others have not been able to develop forms of collaboration.

There is a genuine need for a review and evaluation of management education opportunity programmes. Management education and training programmes have increased at a phenomenal rate; they seem to be forever broadening and have long since moved beyond purely job-related, vocational training to the point where basic literacy, high school equivalency, college and advanced degree study are almost, if not as essential as skill training. Furthermore, management has found that the pressure of social forces has drastically affected production and made it imperative that management itself and its employees learn about race relations, the changing work roles of women, the disaffection of youth, the sharing of decision-making, and the restructuring of production methods. While management has and will continue these educational activities because of their inherent value to the enterprise, it must be recognised that much of what is being done has such significant social and individual value that there is some justification for considering it as the proper responsibility of public education. No one knows the full cost and extent of management training and education. It is suggested that at this time, perhaps more than at any other in our history, management could benefit from knowing these costs with a view toward using the data to work out a sensible relationship between private and public spending on education and training.

A survey and evaluation of labour education in the United States:

Just as with management education, no one knows the extent and financial expenditure of trade unions on education and training in all its variety and complexity. Trade unions are taking a greater interest in all aspects of educational policy and practice as they affect their members and their immediate families. Their concerns include primary and secondary curricula, textbooks, and relationships among students, parents, and teachers. Vocational and technical education and the work of community colleges and universities have all been integrated in one fashion or another, generally on an ad hoc basis, with varying degrees of depth, most often as pressure developed for a specific type of education. Some trade unions have developed outstanding programmes in co-operation with management. Others have been financed by government funds such as the excellent Harry Lundberg school for maritime workers. Still others like the AFT have announced their intention to pursue an educational policy not only for their own members but for all Americans. Unions will be inclined to look with favour on any effort to record and assess the educational work being done in this field.

A survey and evaluation of the efforts of trade unions to win educational benefits for their members through the process of collective bargaining

These would include such areas as: educational leave; apprentice training; on-the-job training; upgrading education, tuition refund programmes; industry-union training and education funds; scholarship programmes; orientation; health and safety; minority groups; women; decision-making on the job; and humanising the work place. In addition studies should be made of innovative programmes such as the operating engineers' dual enrolment programme which is designed to help skilled tradesmen, and the efforts of the AFL-CIO Labour Studies Centre to provide worker union leaders with a Bachelor of Arts degree through external study programmes conducted in co-operation with the University Without Walls.

Tuition aid programmes

One might well select two or three major corporations and unions which have negotiated a tuition refund plan and experiment with educational delivery systems designed to increase worker participation in these programmes. One might also consider developing projects designed to stimulate and assist co-operative efforts to make already established programmes more successful. A most disheartening fact is the low participation rate in tuition refund plans offered by management or negotiated through collective bargaining. Hundreds of thousands of people are not accepting educational opportunities seemingly available to them and hundreds of millions of dollars appear to be lying fallow - for many years!

Education and Training Funds

Here there is need to study the education and cultural training funds negotiated through collective bargaining and administered by trade unions to elucidate participation rates, the quality of participation, and the resulting career patterns either on the job, in the level of union leadership attained, in the social and political life of the community, or in the personal satisfaction achieved. Perhaps the most significant new development in educational opportunity for workers after the rise of the community college is the growing practice on the part of the labour unions to negotiate training and education trust funds. These funds are significant because they are relatively large, they are in the control of the unions who are aggressively seeking out and attempting to meet the educational needs of their members, and because their very nature requires management and the education system to be integrated in the conduct and evaluation of the programmes.

It would seem important to: review and evaluate the response, by community colleges, technical institutes, universities, and state and national education departments and agencies, to industry and union-based educational opportunity programmes; experiment with a variety of methods which might relate various levels of the school system to management and labour without infringing academic freedom and without making management and labour feel as intruders; and experiment with attempts to introduce professional educators and educational institutions as authorised observers or, if invited, as counsellors to the joint efforts of management and labour designed to increase participation in educational opportunity programmes.

Government should take a hard look at its own activities by a review and evaluation of its efforts in the education and training field with special emphasis on the problem of integrating the work of different agencies and different levels of government responsibility; it should establish a long-range funding effort to obtain research and experimentation with new forms of delivery systems for educational opportunity programmes; and it should provide assistance for evaluation and experimentation into ways to expand and deepen educational opportunity programmes and to increase the rate of participation in them.

Thus it is suggested that a national task force might:

a) explore the concerns for education and training opportunity programmes in the White House, in Congress, and in labour, management and education interest groups;
b) initiate a programme of information and education among these groups or within any or all of them as needed and possible so that forums can be provided for practitioners and theorists to discuss their ideas and practices on manpower training and educational opportunity programmes with particular emphasis upon paid educational leave, recurrent and continuing education.

Chapter IV

FUTURE IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL LEAVE: THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES

It is a hazardous exercise to try to examine how the European experiences of educational leave can be transposed to the situation in the United States if indeed they should be. In matters of social policy, national social and political traditions, habits and the values handed down through history are all decisive factors, and these vary from one country to the next. At the present time, when international co-operation is always supposed to be on the verge of death but then constantly rises from the ashes, probably one of the major problems is that of knowing how to describe and analyse national experience of social affairs in a way that will offer food for thought to other Member countries. In dealing with social problems, we operate principally in the field of politics, but we scarcely know whether this disciplinary sphere is answerable to general laws, as may be the case in economics, or whether its specifically national character precludes anything other than a descriptive analysis for each country.

The scope of this chapter is therefore deliberately limited to comparing the main European trends in respect of educational leave and trying to ascertain whether all the many and varied measures taken in the United States fit into a pattern that can be corroborated from European experience.

A. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND NEW SOCIAL MECHANISMS

It may appear paradoxical to speak of educational leave at a time when the Western world is experiencing an economic crisis, with a rise in unemployment so marked that it calls to mind the slump of the nineteen-thirties. And yet, the United Kingdom in 1964 with its Industrial Training Act and France in 1971 with a similar law both launched workers' training policies during periods of social and economic crisis without their action appearing incongruous.

Even if emergency measures have to be taken to combat growing unemployment - like those in France, which maintain for one year the earnings of workers' laid off for economic causes, or those which the United States Congress has taken over unemployment benefits - more far-ranging action will have to be initiated to guard against the adverse medium and long-term character of certain cyclical factors. It is not a good thing either for society or for the workers to have to subsidise a large number of unemployed. The economic waste caused by such a situation is probably less important than the price paid in psychological and human terms.

Although the employment problem cannot be solved merely by the establishment of educational leave which institutionalises training as an integral part of working life, this measure can help to bring about adjustments in the machinery controlling the supply and demand in respect of qualifications and may assist workers and their families to organise their lives in a way that is less dependent on economic growth. This indeed is the significance some European countries see in the spread of educational leave - both at the level of existing institutions and in the negotiations now starting between the different social partners.

At the outset, as we have seen, the training of workers had its place in employers' policies for tailoring the qualifications of their personnel to technological developments. Since the decision lay with the head of the firm alone, this permanent effort was a means of not having to recruit new personnel too often and thus, in the best of circumstances, of integrating training policy and personnel career-advancement policy to some extent. In many instances, the most dynamic firms set up large-scale, on-the-job training schemes which still exist today, even in countries where legislation on educational leave has been introduced. Nor were these efforts confined to the occupational aspects of training connected with the jobs workers were expected to perform. The American example is typical in this respect, in that some large firms offer their employees a wide range of training possibilities that are also extended to their families.

For a long time European trade unions considered adult education as an instrument of individual advancement quite separate from the collective issues they were defending. But there was a gradual change of attitude as the more qualitative features of work were taken into account in union demands. This tendency was fostered as the scope of collective bargaining has been broadened and an increasing number of agreements have been negotiated both at the factory level and for entire industrial sectors. This situation, which is very widespread in the United States, is also encountered in Italy, the Netherlands, Denmark and Federal Germany. It is the rule in Yugoslavia by virtue of the fact that the workers themselves run the socio-political system.

However, whereas the key clause in the European agreements is concerned with securing paid educational leave, such leave in the United States is only one item in a whole array of training assistance. In that country, the aspect of individual advancement is probably more readily accepted by the labour unions, just as the need to make personal sacrifices is more easily recognised by the trainee. Whereas people in the United States speak of educational leave in terms of opportunities granted to workers, the issue in Europe is one of having a "quasi-right" recognised by collective agreement. On that count it will be easier to integrate educational leave into an overall social policy.

Some European countries, such as Belgium, France, Sweden and Yugoslavia, have opted for the recognition of an individual right to educational leave governed by a national law which does not preclude the need for enforcement provisions but requires, rather, that those provisions be negotiated on a basis of equal representation. The system in the United Kingdom does not really amount to proper educational leave, but is more concerned with organising and encouraging the training activities launched by employers. Even though, in practice, the distinction between the individual right and the exercise of that right in a firm's training scheme may sometimes appear artificial - inasmuch as it is often difficult to exercise the individual right in the strict sense of the term, as is the case in France - that distinction is essential for the social issues involved. If a right is recognised as having been institutionalised, the social partners can call on the political and even the legal authorities to specify the meaning of that right and the terms and conditions on which it can be exercised. Hence the social issues evolve within the body of the law, as they have done and still continue to do in other social areas governed by legislation, such as health insurance schemes, retirement schemes, workers' rights, security of employment and so on. The fact that legislation exists cannot be said to sanctify an institution but it places the discussion on another plane.

It is to be noted, however, that in the examples studied in this report the political authorities only "take over" the educational leave issue after round-table discussions have been conducted between trade unions and employers' organisations. Only if the two sides, through the interplay of forces, have reached a balanced agreement does the government intervene to enshrine it and, in the case of educational leave, to convert it into a law that is applicable to everybody. This "conversion process" carried out by the government always entails working out a compromise between divergent opinions, even though there may have been a consensus at some stage. The government is not neutral: by stepping into the scene, it modifies the attitudes of the social protagonists and the legislation it draws up on behalf of its parliamentary majority tends to alter the bipartite agreements already negotiated.

A wide-ranging discussion on the problem of educational leave has been taking place in Europe for a long time and the problem has been debated in national parliaments on several occasions. But the existence of "halfway houses", such as the economic and social councils and the tripartite bodies which many countries have set up to deal with employment problems, has made it easier for this new concept to mature, since the people directly concerned have been able to subject it to analysis. This type of "across the table" arrangement, which can be set up quite easily in European countries since most of them, even the Federal ones, have strong centralised administrations, does not exist in the United States, where it is rather more difficult to set such talks in motion owing to the highly decentralised nature of the responsibility-taking processes.

For discussions such as these have existed in Europe for many years. In some countries they date back to before the second world war. They reflect the importance attached to labour problems in that they acknowledge the role played by trade unions. But their existence is also a reflection of the autonomy of the political sphere, as represented by parliament, in relation to the economic sphere, and this appears to be vital for an understanding of the importance and specific character of the approach which European political parties have to social policy. The relations existing between communist, socialist and labour parties and trade unions - but, at the same time, the real independence which unions enjoy with respect to those same parties - ensure that the social debate goes on permanently at all levels. Furthermore, they have enabled round-table discussions to become a widespread feature and the results they have achieved to be taken into account by the political authorities.

As collective bargaining becomes the general practice, there is a risk of social action becoming over-fragmented; failing the existence of a national body where problems can be discussed and proposals made, agreements are negotiated at the local level and on specific issues without regard for the relationships and pattern of consistency which exist, or ought to exist, between the different policy aspects. All countries, and the United States in particular, have considerably increased the variety of measures taken in favour of adult education, but the fact that these measures are not brought together under a co-ordinated policy heading leads to wastage of resources, the continued existence of a gap between supply and demand as far as qualifications are concerned, and shortcomings in the action taken on behalf of marginal categories of the population.

B. THE GAP BETWEEN THE WORLDS OF LABOUR AND EDUCATION

In spite of the most serious economic crisis since the nineteen-thirties, the United States and the countries of Europe have stepped up their expenditure on education and on the training of workers and the unemployed. Unfortunately, the efforts made - through legislation or collective agreements - to broaden the range of possibilities open to workers and their families have revealed the gap that exists between the world of labour and the world of education. So far, neither in the United States nor in Europe have traditional teaching systems been capable of providing for the educational needs of industry, trade unions and adult workers.

However, it is essential for a coalition to be established between the worlds of education and labour if strategies are to be devised for instituting paid educational leave, recurrent education and other training programmes for workers and their families. European experience everywhere points to the dynamic role which the social partners have played in setting up worker-training programmes, whereas the education system in both Europe and the United States appears to have neglected training for adults, whatever their age. There can be no doubt that one of the decisive factors in the successful introduction of recurrent education would be the mobilisation of the teaching system at the earliest possible stage.

It would be pointless and unfair to blame initial education systems for all the ills. The difficulties the economic sectors have in formulating their labour and training requirements far enough ahead for their projections to be of value to the training establishment mean that the latter's questions often go unanswered. Moreover, the problem of employment is not just one of adjusting the qualifications workers already have to those society needs. The Western countries are entering a period in which the absolute growth of employment will taper off considerably compared with the pace maintained in the nineteen-sixties. In such circumstances, teaching systems that are obliged to absorb generations of young people because of the legislation on compulsory schooling, cannot be reproached with failing to adapt themselves to inadequate labour needs.

Teaching and training should not therefore be regarded as a privileged means of combating employment problems, because the latter are, in fact, the outcome of economic policies. Even so, a number of queries can be raised.

Are the unemployed sufficiently trained to find a new job from which they will derive satisfaction and which will prove useful to the advanced technological society in which we live? Can they take up vacant jobs requiring specific qualifications and training? Will they find themselves back in the position of unskilled workers, with no seniority and earning much less than they earned before? Can they derive immediate benefit from their training? Would it be possible to set up teaching and permanent training systems that provide workers with a basic education and qualifications that can be adapted to the changes dictated by a society in which production processes are becoming increasingly automated? What types of education are best suited to providing citizens with the economic, social and political knowledge needed to enable them to play a proper role in solving national problems?

The answers to these questions are not all to be found in the establishment of a workers-training system in which the amenities and people belonging to the initial system would play an important, and even essential, role. The answers depend, in the first instance, on the economic policies that are pursued. But they also depend on the type of training given in schools and teaching establishments. Paradoxically, it might be said that professional teaching is not so much to blame as the overall conception of the teaching system and the general education it provides. A distinction can thus be made between two aspects:

"1. The first is probably the development of general subjects to the detriment of more technical and vocational subjects, either through a more massive orientation of pupils and students towards the corresponding branches in binary systems or through the growing pre-eminence of general subjects as opposed to practical subjects in the comprehensives, e.g. in Sweden or the United States, or, finally, at the higher education level, through the influx of students into those branches of education that are easiest of access (e.g. the universities in France, as opposed to the specialised institutions of higher education, i.e. "grandes écoles"), but whose openings are very restricted. This is explained by the system of values prevalent in academic circles, and also by the role played by a classical education in meritocratic structures.

2. Another aspect, which is a corollary of the first, is the elimination of the less talented children and their relegation to less prestigious channels, which are generally the various forms of vocational training. As a result of the inability to define a modern culture, discrimination against such training, whose clientele - at secondary and even sometimes at post-secondary level - is drawn from the less able pupils, is being reinforced. This may help to explain the fact that correlations show that in the United States high school graduates in vocational subjects do not get better wages than

people who have received a general education, but do not possess any qualification".(1)

The general education provided by the formal educational system thus tends to lose touch with reality and is no longer of use in preparing young people for their successful introduction into society. Hence, there are growing demands for general education from workers, or at least from their union representatives. For those people who left school with a sense of failure, the term general education corresponds to a memory they have cast out of their minds. Only by really endeavouring to draw out people's ideas on the problem will it be possible to reveal the need for some sort of general education, yet to be discovered, that is more in touch with everyday realities.

Any attempt to establish closer relations between the worlds of education and labour will have to contend with the mistrust existing between the two parties over both aims and methods. Teaching systems cannot countenance the idea of being dominated by groups coming from the outside. The unions find that schools do not provide workers with a satisfactory education. Employers are reluctant to place their trust in teachers whom they accuse of not always taking into account the practical needs of the economic world.

It would be a wise course if machinery were set up to promote discussion between the different partners. Such machinery, which would be responsible for planning education and measuring the results, would make for increased concertation while ensuring that the different opinions held would be respected.

Teachers ought to direct their research towards training programmes that have been set up unilaterally by employers or organised under collective agreements, and investigate both their content and the teaching methods used. The teaching profession should also hold discussions with trade unionists and employers on the educational theories it advocates and the policies it proposes.

Teachers should devote more attention to trade unions and to workers generally and make greater allowance for the industrial environment in which they live. For one thing, the organisation of trade unions and the functions they perform are a vital area of social research and the knowledge disseminated by the university system can be of considerable assistance to trade unions in solving the problems they have to deal with. In a broader context, the teaching system should endeavour to obtain a firmer grasp of the needs of workers, whether they are trade unionists or not, and of the constraints to which they are subjected.

If this is to be done, schools will have to make themselves more accessible to adults, adjust their hours to the time when workers

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1) The Insertion of Youth into Working Life, OECD, 1975 (document).

are free, improve or set up bodies to guide and advise them and even organise training on the premises of trade unions and firms. Lastly, the education system should address itself to finding and training instructors who are union members or actually work in firms. The unions could be responsible for training their members, and also advise instructors within firms. The lack of motivation, especially for general education, that has been observed in countries where the individual right to educational leave exists, could be remedied if instructors were to be recruited from the same social environment as the people they train. If the problem were scaled down to size in this way, it would be easier to integrate the education system into society.

C. FINANCING EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND NEW RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN FIRMS

However, the effects of this change in the education system will only be felt in the medium and long-term future. For the time being, training systems connected with the right to educational leave will have to cope with workers' growing demands for general education.

Whether or not the legislation on educational leave provides for this type of training is a highly controversial issue. The trade unions are militating in favour of extending the scope of permanent education in this way because they want the workers to have a sound educational background which will enable them to fulfil their role in society. Hence, they are in the mainstream of the stand taken by the International Labour Conference in 1974. The employers, on the other hand, consider that this kind of training is the responsibility of the government and of the individuals concerned.

Although, at first sight, these two positions appear contradictory, they stem from the same idea. The unions believe that one of the main causes of social and economic inequality is the low cultural level of workers who have completed their years of compulsory schooling. This argument is acknowledged by the employers but they consider that it is not for them to take the state's place in remedying the shortcomings of the educational system for which the state is responsible. While this reversal of the roles, or assumption of responsibility, by employers, may not seem preposterous in the United States, where a large number of social amenities such as health insurance, pensions and so on, are privately financed, it appears very improper in the countries of Europe, where the state plays a decisive role in social affairs. If too much importance is attached to the role employers play in the financing and organisation of permanent education, all sorts of questions are liable to be raised in Europe about the role and utility of the initial education system. All the trade unions have already stated that the socio-economic inequalities which schools did not succeed in eradicating have been foisted on them and that it is necessary to envisage a complete recasting of the curricula and methods of the educational system. Hence a barrage of criticism is levelled against an educational system that is costly to run and whose utility has not been demonstrated.

In spite of this, some European countries (Belgium, Italy, Sweden and Yugoslavia) have included general education in the facilities available under educational leave. These provisions are liable to bring about far-reaching changes in industrial life. First of all, as the cultural levels of workers improve, they will be even less prepared than they were in the past to accept employment where earnings and working conditions are not very satisfactory. The tendency that has already been observed for young people to reject job opportunities could very well spread to their elders. Companies would then be compelled to change their work organisation so as to give workers more independence and responsibility, along the lines of the "autonomous production units" already created in some firms. Secondly, improved training will be likely to prompt workers to play a more active part in society, but also in their firms, so that steps will have to be taken to provide for new forms of worker participation and new decision-making machinery.

Although the inclusion of general education in educational leave systems raises the problem of situating the responsibilities of employers and the state, this problem is largely a theoretical one for the time being, since general education is still a very minor aspect of the whole subject. In fact, as far as can be known, the exercise of the individual right, in instances where it exists, is extremely limited. Most of the personnel on educational leave come under training schemes organised by employers. The reasons for this state of affairs are not very clear: they may include pressure exerted by employers to prevail upon workers to forgo their right, the fact that workers are apprehensive about claiming their right or else the fact that the systems established are complicated and make it difficult to know exactly what rights are recognised or even that such rights exist at all. In any event, experience has shown in several cases that lack of motivation is not a good explanation for people failing to take part in the system. Many workers have yet to be convinced of the value of training because it does not necessarily imply any job promotion. For a large number, the traumatic experience of their schooldays hardly incites them to expect anything from a second go at training when they did not acquire anything from the first. Channels of communication will probably have to be developed with workers so that they can take part in defining training needs, and this will require the mediation and involvement of the trade unions. In instances where unions have assumed responsibility for organising and setting up educational leave systems, remarkable progress has been made. The experiments conducted in Sweden, the United States, Italy and Yugoslavia have shown that not only has there been a sharp rise in the rate of participation, but that those who benefited most from the increase were the least trained and least skilled workers. In the United States, the unions have been instrumental in solving the problems faced by unemployed workers by offering them training during lay-off periods, as well as in solving the problem of absenteeism from training courses.

However, this relatively low rate of participation is only offset by measures taken by large firms who have a more accurate idea of the value to them of better-trained personnel and can make larger financial contributions, but also have stronger union representation. The problem of small firms is posed in the same terms in both Europe and the United States, apart from the fact that all firms in Europe have to fulfil financial obligations, so that even the smallest have training budgets. However, the size of the smallest budgets is such that no proper training scheme can be instituted, although the personnel training needs of small firms are at least as great as those for employees in large firms. They are probably even greater, because small firms are more vulnerable to the hazards of the economic situation, in addition to which allowance has commonly to be made for the training needs of managerial staff, who are often self-educated and on whose abilities the firm's future may depend.

No special provision is made for this category of firm in any of the countries. One possible approach might be to set up funds in which the resources employers and the state make available for training purposes would be pooled and from which they would be redistributed in accordance with an industrial policy laid down by the political authorities. The British Industrial Training Act of 1964 points the way in this respect. In any event, there are many reasons for advocating a combination of public and private financing which would remove all ambiguity over the issue of general education versus vocational training and would also make it possible, if public participation were tailored to the circumstances, to soften the impact of economic fluctuations by increasing government assistance in periods of stagnation or recession. In addition, for the sake of added clarity and justice, the practice of including in training expenses the cost of paying workers' wages while they are on training should be discontinued, because the "spare productivity", at least in large firms, is sufficient to maintain the level of production without the need for extra personnel.

D. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AS AN ELEMENT OF SOCIAL POLICY

Strictly from the point of view of its consequences for economic policy, adult education is primarily considered as a privileged means of correcting certain imbalances on the labour market where, at some periods, shortage of skilled labour in some sectors may exist side-by-side with a surfeit in others.

However, adult education can also be regarded as an important feature in an active labour policy designed to overcome widespread economic imbalances in periods of crisis, in respect both of the number of unemployed and the length of time people remain without work.

At the same time as schemes for assisting the unemployed are constantly being improved in all countries, a variety of steps are being taken to set up training programmes for helping people who are out of work to find a job again.(1) Facilities for alleviating the effects of unemployment through training are accordingly expanding.

Some countries and employers are beginning to make use of such facilities. In Sweden, during periods of recession, some firms direct their personnel to state-supported training schemes rather than dismiss them, while in the United States large firms like General Motors could endeavour to register their laid-off workers for training courses which the firms find themselves to have agreed to finance. During training, such workers are paid by supporting unemployment benefits funds pending their re-employment, for which they are granted priority, while they remain on the seniority list.

The inclusion of training in labour policies is further warranted by the fact that, in some countries, educational leave is granted to workers who are "liable to lose their jobs" but who are not yet unemployed and that, alongside "total unemployment", there is a growth in partial unemployment by dint of a reduction in working hours without breach of the labour contract. The French government has recently encouraged firms to make use of such reductions in working hours for educational leave purposes under the provisions of the law of 1971.

Thus, in adult education, it could be said that there is a common thread linking issues that relate, strictly speaking, to educational leave or to redeployment measures in cases where jobs

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1) Cf. the OECD report: Adult Education, an instrument of an active labour policy, July 1972.

are liable to be phased out or else to the training of "part-time" and "full-time" unemployed. A change in perspective could be contemplated in which periods of unemployment would be transformed into educational leave periods "due to loss of employment". Once full employment is considered the top priority of economic and social policy, it has to be acknowledged that unemployment is an anachronism. Many countries have become aware of this fact. The recent agreements negotiated in France, under which laid-off workers received 90 per cent of their gross earnings or their full net earnings for one year, and the unemployment-aid schemes set up by collective agreement or legislation in other countries show clearly that the state of being out of work is due to the defective functioning of the "economic machine" and that "... it is not proper for wage-earners to be exposed to the danger of losing a job on which the subsistence of their family depends, for reasons beyond their control".(1)

Hence, it is only logical to recognise that educational leave may be granted, if the ILO position is taken as a basis, for the following purposes:

- for trade union activity;
- to enable people to acquire a better general education or vocational training;
- to compensate for a temporary cessation of employment.

It should be added that all countries have a class of permanent unemployed who are unable to find a job even in periods of economic expansion. These people should be catered for under a special policy which would undoubtedly have more in common with measures to help the handicapped than with an active labour policy.

However, several technical prerequisites will have to be fulfilled if such a system is to have any real impact:

a) firstly, training centres will need an absorption capacity high enough to ensure that a "critical" number of workers are saved from unemployment;(2)
b) secondly, an effective link will have to be established between the training system and labour offices, covering both employment policy proper and job projections;
c) lastly, the system should be highly flexible both in its operating machinery, including its budget and working procedures, and in its teaching organisation, since unemployment is something which cannot be planned for ahead in the majority of cases.

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1) Preamble to the law of 18th December, 1973, establishing the French "Fonds National de l'Emploi" (National Employment Fund).

2) In Sweden, for example, in 1968, the equivalent of 2 per cent of the working population (in man-years) was absorbed.

It is worth pointing out, nevertheless, that this new turn taken by training has come up against criticism from the trade unions, especially in France, because they fear that the sole purpose of such a policy is to "camouflage" unemployment without really tackling its root causes. In their view, there is also a considerable risk of some of the resources intended for training being diverted into a policy to combat unemployment, for which financing ought to be found from other sources.

The use of training in economic policy therefore implies that a change has to take place in the respective roles played by the state and the social partners. Until a few years ago unemployment was a problem for the individual who had to find a new job by himself, even if there were organisations to help him in his search. Only recently, in connection with mass dismissals, have collective redeployment procedures been introduced. If people out of work decide to go on a training course, either they are taking a personal risk by deferring their search for a job or else they have considerable confidence in the labour offices. Hence, it would seem necessary for a tripartite body, comprising the state, the employers and the workers, to assume responsibility for enlisting the unemployed in training exercises and then finding them a job in keeping with the skills they acquire.

Secondly, in view of the increasing role of collective bargaining procedures, from which educational leave is not excluded, it would be inconceivable to proceed with the integration of training policies into overall labour policies without the active participation of trade union and employers' organisations, if only as a guarantee of success.

Lastly, the rehabilitation of education along these lines can only be visualised if its end-purpose is not confined merely to improving labour policy. In the final analysis, the aim is to enable the individual to express himself fully. Fulfilment such as this depends only partly on the job he does and which he should be in a position to choose for himself. This will entail a far more ambitious socio-economic transformation which has to be accomplished not so much to eliminate conflict between groups whose interests are naturally not the same, as to set up permanent machinery for collective decision-making so that the independence and well-being of every individual can be progressively enhanced.

Chapter V

SUMMARY

Adult education traces back the origins of its long history to the twofold belief that education has a privileged role to play in the social process and that personal endeavour is an all-important consideration. While it is true that workers have managed to improve their situation through attending evening classes and that, as a result of such ventures, the population as a whole has enjoyed the benefit of a cultural "briefing" that ought not to be underrated, adult education has not been immune to the "teaching illusion".(1) Just as traditional schooling has sanctioned socio-cultural inequalities, so the effort demanded of candidates for adult education has been such that only the most ambitious and most motivated workers have been able to take advantage of it.

However, as a result of the increasingly widespread use employers have made of vocational training schemes for their personnel, training, instead of being a problem for the individual alone to solve, has become a collective issue. Since these measures were often taken in large firms in which trade unions were powerful, the unions were prompted to include the right to training in their catalogue of demands.

This change of emphasis in respect of adult education has had the effect of situating it in the context of socio-political bargaining. "Thus, at the present time, a training problem of any slight degree of complexity cannot be solved without the agreement of at least six partners: the people to be trained, the people who do the training, the employers, the trade unions, the authorities and the underlying political forces".(2) Once it had become an issue for negotiation, training took on the trappings of a right to be claimed and educational leave accordingly became the prerequisite for exercising that right.

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1) "The teaching illusion" is the hope that a change in the system of education will be sufficient to transform the social structures.

2) Pierre Caspar: *Pratique de la formation des adultes*, Les éditions d'organisation, Paris 1975.

The various countries that have been studied (Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, the United States and Yugoslavia) have all reached different stages in this historical process. While Belgium, France, Sweden and Yugoslavia have completed the full cycle - although, even so, educational leave has not fallen into an established pattern - the same is not true of the other countries. However, various factors suggest that they will adopt an identical approach.

Firstly, the discussions which have taken place in the International Labour Organisation, and the resolutions which that body has adopted, reflect a definite trend towards giving the problem a political dimension and towards securing universal recognition of the right to educational leave. The extent to which that aim materialises will depend on the importance the social partners in each country attach to the right to educational leave in their collective bargaining. Governments, in fact, seem to introduce legislation only when initial agreement has been reached at that level.

Secondly, failing the existence of national legislation, the spread of training in industry seems to work in favour of employees of large firms. Hence inequalities are created between workers over and above the miscellaneous advantages normally accruing to the employees of large firms.

Thirdly, as permanent education systems expand, they mobilise an increasing volume of resources in addition to that mobilised by the initial educational establishment. Public opinion and employers can be expected to query the justification for superimposing two systems that are expensive to run and whose respective roles are not clearly defined. The existence of national legislation may be a forerunner of a comprehensive reappraisal along those lines.

A. THE INDIVIDUAL RIGHT TO EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

The most forward-looking legislation recognises the right to educational leave as an individual right, i.e. the right of workers to choose the type of training they wish and the right to obtain leave for that purpose. There is, in fact, a third ingredient which is the actual physical possibility of exercising that right, which depends on their being entitled to their full salary during the training period and re-acceptance in their jobs afterwards.

In reality, these rights are not entirely unconnected, even though a legal distinction is made between them in some countries. In Denmark, for instance, certain types of training exist for able-bodied workers who are guaranteed that their jobs will be left open for them. In Sweden and France, the fact that workers have the right to educational leave does not necessarily mean that they will continue to draw their wages. Lastly, workers do not have complete freedom in choosing training either because the "market" does not provide the type of training they are looking for or else because, in many cases, priority is given under the existing legislation to vocational training directly related to the occupations workers are engaged in or are seeking.

The individual right to educational leave has not been in existence long enough for a body of precedent or custom to be established and this right is consequently exercised in a social situation that is dominated by job-relevant demands. In the case in point and notwithstanding the fact that legal principles have been laid down, employers still have considerable power and, in practice, to safeguard their interests, they are prompted to give preference to vocational training i.e. to a type of training in which, all other things being equal, employers and workers pursue the same goals.

In some countries, however, as a result either of legislation (Belgium, France, Sweden, Yugoslavia) or of the power wielded by the unions (Italy, the United States), general or cultural education comes within the scope of educational leave, often on the grounds that its purpose is to offer equal opportunities to everybody or to correct inequalities.

The extension of educational leave to these subject-areas arouses opposition and gives rise to problems. Employers in many countries are opposed to it inasmuch as they consider that training of that type is an attempt to remedy the shortcomings of the initial education system for which the state is responsible. They feel that in all fairness therefore, the state ought to provide such training without any help from the employers. This is the argument that casts doubt on the teaching system and the results it achieves.

And yet a host of problems is involved in introducing general education. The first is the lack of motivation displayed by workers for this type of training, often because of their adverse experience during their schooldays. Any policy designed to combat inequalities therefore entails collaborating with the workers themselves in deciding on the type of general education courses that they will find useful. Experience has shown that this approach can only be successful if trade unions are given more responsibility for organising and supervising training. In this respect, the Swedish example is significant in that the unions have personnel paid by the employers to discover workers willing to take training courses and to encourage them to do so.

The second problem lies in the fact that improved cultural standards will normally incite workers to play a larger part in social matters and therefore to adopt a more independent attitude to the firms employing them. If social conflicts are to be avoided, the structures of firms and working conditions will have to be completely changed to increase workers' participation. As a means of improving life on the job, the establishment of educational leave, by the content of the courses provided, may prove to be a major event.

B. FINANCING MECHANISMS

Employers have always financed the training schemes which they themselves organise for their personnel, irrespective of whether this entails the actual cost of training or the maintenance of earnings while workers are attending courses. Under the educational leave laws, a new set of financial obligations has been imposed on employers from without. It is in this national legislation that the main innovation lies, because a practice that used to be confined to large firms has now become an obligation for everybody. Such laws exist in Belgium, in France, in Italy, in the United Kingdom, in the Netherlands for some categories of the population, in some of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany and Yugoslavia.(1) However, the legislation varies considerably from country to country.

For example, Belgium is the country where, by virtue of the law of 1973 and the scope it offers, the individual right is probably best assured. The cost of educational leave is shared equally between employers - who pay a tax on the total wages bill - and the government. Both parties pay their contributions to a national fund, which is then distributed among the employers. It should be added that employers cannot include their own efforts in the contributions they are required to make, since these come under the measures they take on behalf of their personnel in accordance with the terms of the law. In the case of Belgium, the individual right is kept quite separate from employers' habitual practices.

A second example is afforded by the situation existing in France, Italy and the United Kingdom, where employers bear all, or virtually all, the cost of educational leave and the training provided during such leave. Here again, a tax on similar lines is levied on the basis of the employer's wages bill. This does not prevent specific action from being taken by the government, which may finance schemes for special categories of the population

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1) The Swedish law makes no reference to the system used for financing the educational leave it establishes.

out of its own budget, as is the case in France and the United Kingdom. However, while the exclusive aim in the United Kingdom is to encourage employers to organise vocational training for their personnel, in Italy general and cultural education is organised at the direct instance of the trade unions. The situation in France lies midway between the two, although there appears to be little genuine exercise of the individual right.

The last example is that of the United States, where there is no nationwide legislation but where a number of leading firms, acting either on their own initiative or as a result of round-table agreements, offer their employees the possibility of taking educational leave and pay them a fixed allowance. The system in Yugoslavia is somewhat similar in that the right to educational leave and training is recognised at the federal level, while most of the practical arrangements emanate from the decisions taken by the worker-managed communities.

Thus, as a general rule, in instances where national systems exist, educational leave is largely financed by employers through a tax based on the total wages bill.(1) Since, in the long run, the amount involved increases at a faster rate - even when broken down into the amount per worker - than the price index (unless there is a sudden, very steep, rise in unemployment), the resources earmarked for training adults under the educational leave system will increase in real terms at least as fast as the amounts allocated to the initial education system. In France, for example, public and private expenditure on permanent education in 1974 represented 17 per cent of the budget of the Ministry of Education.

In view of the magnitude of the sums involved, some countries could already start contemplating very large-scale operations which would have a significant impact if they were placed in the context of a medium-term plan. However, they do not appear to be doing so, except perhaps in Italy and Yugoslavia, where educational leave has political implications. In many cases, the impressive results claimed only turn out to be a large number of isolated operations which would scarcely improve the situation of individual workers in the long term.

C. TRAINING INSTITUTIONS AND WORKER PARTICIPATION

Reference has already been made to the training "market" which educational leave legislation has contributed to creating. In

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1) Other tax-assessment systems could be contemplated, but the system most commonly used has the merit of being simple and of ensuring that the volume of resources generated is stable.

some countries, chiefly in France and to a lesser extent in Italy and Federal Germany, this has resulted in the establishment of a large number of organisations of all kinds to provide training courses. Some of these courses are of dubious quality and none of their teaching standards are subject to control, because no provision was ever made for that purpose in the existing legislation. Everywhere else, public teaching establishments play a central role, particularly in the training of apprentices and young workers.

Private institutions have often been set up to remedy the weaknesses of the public training system. These weaknesses were foreseen from the time the debate on educational leave started and that fact is very symptomatic. In none of the countries were officials responsible for education involved in the bipartite discussions between unions and employers. Ministries of education never took any initiative in the matter; at best, they were associated, in a few rare cases, with the discussions at government level. All the prompting came from labour circles and, in the case of governments, from the ministers and officials responsible for employment. The fact is that the considerable growth in permanent education as a result of educational leave is, in a way, an implicit indictment of conventional schooling. There is not even a complete understanding or identity of views between labour unions and teachers' unions.

Even so, owing to the determined stand taken by the unions and for reasons of economy, adult training makes use of public teaching systems. This is true for general education and it is also true for vocational training at the skilled worker level. But there are problems nevertheless. Teachers are impregnated with too charismatic a view of their profession for it to be easy to adjust to an adult audience. Italian trade unions have been obliged to organise classes on adult teaching for the benefit of teachers. The long-standing mistrust existing between school and industry is reflected in the relations between teachers and workers. The spread of permanent education will probably be the greatest challenge teaching has ever had to face. In the end, it may even call into question the very content of the basic education which young people are increasingly reluctant to accept and which their elders are fundamentally disputing. Nor would this necessarily be a bad thing.

Nevertheless, the public teaching system is the principal medium through which the individual right is exercised. Although, as has already been stated, some countries make provision for both the activities sponsored by employers and the individual right while others make a very clear distinction between them, the number of trainees enjoying the individual right is very small in both cases. Workers still tend to mistrust employers. A particularly striking example is provided by the situation in Belgium, where a very large number of workers - almost 200,000 - attend social advancement classes in the evenings. Virtually all these trainees could take advantage, to varying degrees, of the "time credit" arrangement provided for under the law of 1973 and yet only a very small proportion - some 10 per cent - ask their employers to grant them the benefits of the law.

Since no special provisions have been made for small firms, very few of their employees take educational leave, owing to the difficulty involved in maintaining output if certain categories of personnel are absent.

Most of the training provided is therefore of a vocational character and the majority of trainees take educational leave in connection with training schemes organised by their employers. Hence the inadequate role played by public teaching establishments is a sign not only that their curricula are relatively unsuited to the needs of adult workers but also of the outcome of the workers' very real dependence on employers' policies.

Even in countries where national legislation on educational leave exists, we are still only witnessing the start of something which may result in a far-reaching transformation of working life. The right to educational leave and the way the exercise of that right is organised is different in quality from other social rights such as paid holidays, sickness insurance, retirement schemes and so on. By including it in their catalogue of demands, the trade unions are diversifying their strategy and taking the qualitative features of life on the job into consideration. Since educational leave enables people to have a permanent education and since its practical application depends on bodies on which the trade unions and employers' associations are equally represented, it is becoming a subject or testing-ground for strife or, if a socio-political consensus is arrived at, a means of changing the social organisation.

In this respect, educational leave is a privileged means of introducing recurrent education into society by providing for alternating periods of employment and training on the one hand, and by fostering an awareness of the need to overhaul the general education system in a much broader context. The process now starting may not culminate in "lifelong schooling" but it may bring about the rehabilitation of education, which would no longer be regarded merely as a system for transmitting knowledge but as a way of formalising the experience people have gained and confronting it with acquired human knowledge. It will be for the trade union and employers' organisations involved, as well as the state, which have so far been the only participants in the debate on educational leave, to foster the growth of an individual and exacting demand which is the only force that, as it becomes increasingly widespread, will make it possible to change the existing systems.

Part Two

COUNTRY STUDIES

To facilitate the interpretation of the figures in the national reports, use may be made of the following approximate currency conversion factors based on the exchange rates of 15th August 1975.

(The conversion table should be read downwards and for each monetary unit gives the equivalent in foreign currency.)

	US$	£	FF	FB	Li	DKr	SKr	D	NFl	DM
US Dollar: US$	1	0.47	4.5	39.8	692.3	6	4.35	16.7	2.7	2.6
Pound Sterling: £	2.1	1	9.6	84.5	1469	12.7	9.2	35.4	5.7	5.5
French Franc: FF	0.2	0.1	1	8.9	153.8	1.3	1	3.7	0.6	0.6
Belgian Franc: FB	0.03	0.01	0.1	1	17.4	0.15	0.1	0.4	0.07	0.07
Italian Lira: Li	0.0014	0.0007	0.007	0.06	1	0.009	0.006	0.02	0.004	0.004
Danish Kroner: DKr	0.2	0.08	0.75	6.6	115.4	1	0.73	2.8	0.45	0.4
Swedish Kroner: SKr	0.2	0.11	1.04	9.2	159.2	1.4	1	3.8	0.6	0.6
Yugoslav Dinar: D	0.06	0.03	0.3	2.4	41.5	0.4	0.3	1	0.2	0.2
Dutch Florin: NFl	0.37	0.18	1.7	14.9	258.5	2.2	1.6	6.2	1	0.97
German Mark: DM	0.39	0.18	1.7	15.4	267.7	2.3	1.7	6.4	1.04	1

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN BELGIUM

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Vocational Education (L'enseignement de promotion sociale)

The reorganisation of initial training opportunities for young people in 1957 introduced part-time education, available as evening or weekend courses for workers who wished to improve their vocational skills. These courses are given in establishments created recognised or supported by the Department of National Education. In 1960-61 there were 118,000 students enrolled in these courses (76,000 men and 42,000 women).

On 1st July 1963, a law, modified by the law of 10th April 1973 and by a Royal Decree on 28th April 1975, provided indemnity and some right to leave for certain categories of workers who take courses to facilitate their occupational mobility. Those concerned are:

a) Workers aged less than 40 years who, with a view to upgrading their intellectual, ethical and social education follow courses organised with this objective by youth organisations or organisations representing the workers, eventually in collaboration with employers(1).

b) Workers who have successfully completed, in a state establishment or an establishment supported or recognised by the state, a cycle of evening or Sunday courses enabling them to improve their vocational qualifications.

For group (a) the right to paid leave corresponds to the hours of the courses followed: for group (b) it is determined by collective agreement which fixes the length of the absence authorised for following vocational courses(2). The days of absence are added to the days of normal work for the application of social legislation. The benefit of these arrangements was extended to self-employed workers and their family assistants in 1965.

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1) These courses are given during the day.

2) The 'part-time instruction' being given for the most part in the evening or during the weekend, the number of collective agreements is minimal and the arrangement is virtually ineffective.

The indemnity is as follows if the courses are for 'intellectual, ethical and social learning':

- workers of less than 21 years of age: 300 to 360 Belgian Francs (B.Frs.) (approx. $8-10) per day with an annual limit of 3,600 B.Frs. (approx. $103) (rate as of December 1973).
- Workers of between 21 and 40 years of age: 375 to 450 B.Frs. (approx. $11 and $13 respectively) with an annual limit of 4,500 B.Frs. (approx. $128) (rate as of December 1973).

In 1972-73 the vocational education courses were attended by 157,480 workers, courses for the self-employed and family workers by 55,586 individuals, and courses for intellectual, ethical and civic subjects by 5,213 pupils(1).

The Law of Credit Hours

Between 1963 and 1971 the matter of educational leave underwent little development so far as legislation is concerned. However, during this period great interest was shown in the idea of "credit hours", which is the term in Belgium for educational leave, and numerous discussions took place between the various social and political bodies interested in the subject. The term "credit hours" appeared in the programme of several political parties and of the common front of trade unions.

In 1971, the Ministre de l'Emploi et du Travail studied a number of propositions for credit hours and consulted the Conseil National du Travail, the official body that brings together representatives of employers and employees at national and professional level. The resulting draft for a law could not however, be presented to Parliament before the fall of the Eyskens-Cools government, even though the sum of 450 million B.Frs. (approx. $12.8 million) had been laid aside for it in the 1972 budget. Finally, it was agreed by government on 12th March 1973 and passed by Parliament on 10th April.

In its case in support of the law submitted to Parliament the government declared adherence to four principles:

a) continuous training allows workers to conserve their position in a labour market which is more and more conditioned by rapid technological evolution;

b) attendances at courses allows the redressing of inequalities in the education received at school;

c) the continuous training made possible by the law would be of distinct benefit to industrial companies;

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1) The quasi-totality of the students was less than 40 years of age.

d) the development of any individual depends on the possibilities of leading a well balanced life. All supplementary training necessitates therefore, compensatory payment for leave taken during working hours.

Unlike the previous arrangements for vocational training the law on credit hours brings, on the one hand, a systematisation of leave and, on the other, normal remuneration up to a limit of 28,000 B.Frs. (approx. $793) per month.

The law of 10th April 1973 was originally applicable "to salaried employees of less than 40 years of age in full-time employment who are following vocational education through courses organised or supported by the state"(1).

It was extended on:

- 24th April 1973, to employees following courses called "patronat", i.e. courses for training or improvement in specific skills;
- 28th April 1973, to agricultural workers already in employment following courses in agriculture, horticulture or domestic economy;
- 28th December 1973, to employees following courses in l'enseignement artistique de promotion socio-culturelle (music, literature and the plastic/graphic arts);
- 7th October 1974, to employees following courses of general education with a view to their economic, social and cultural mobility;
- 7th October 1974, to employees who follow "courses at university level of long duration given in the evenings".

During the last few years, several bills have been prepared to establish a system of credit hours for self-employed workers and members of their families who assist them. There is also a move towards extending educational leave to other types of course and groups of people - restricted for the moment to those already employed. The limit of 40 years of age remains unchanged.

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LAW OF CREDIT HOURS AND ITS FINANCING

The principle of the law is that participants in vocational training have the right to be absent from work on full pay. The costs are borne by the State and the employers on a 50/50 basis.

Even though the practical application of the law leaves plenty of scope for collective agreements between employer and employee organisations, the government keeps control over the

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1) See previous page.

development of the system through two major provisions. The first is a simple decree that allows it to extend the benefit of the law to other categories of training (the need for a Parliamentary vote is thus avoided, except for the extensions to other categories of workers). The second is more subtle: the law is applicable to courses involving "social mobility learning", the definition of which rests with the Minstry of National Education. As interpretations of this can vary, so of course can applications of the law.

Conditions of Eligibility and Right to Educational Leave

The basic conditions are:

- that the worker is under 40 years of age;
- that he or she is covered by a contract of employment, that is to say is employed in the private sector;
- that the worker is following a vocational training course created, recognised or supported by the Department of National Education.

If these conditions are fulfulled, the trainee has the right to be absent from work with maintenance of his normal salary:

i) during a number of hours equal to the number of hours spent in following a year of classes, if he has already completed a two year course of vocational training.

ii) during the number of hours equal to half the number of hours involved in following a year of vocational training.

As the vocational training courses take place during the evening and at week-ends, the leave involved is compensatory. However, the law does not exclude, and indeed has foreseen, the possibility of a worker using credit hours to attend courses even if these take place during the day, provided they conform with the conditions set out in (i) and (ii) above.

Under pressure from workers' organisations and youth organisations who feel that students in their first year of studies should be encouraged, a Royal Decree on 16th September 1974 allowed that a worker following the first year of a vocational course should receive compensation in credit hours equal to 25 per cent of the hours of the course he had followed. In order to benefit from these arrangements the worker must give evidence of his attendance during the first year.

Finally, further bills have been guided through by the administration to allow self-employed workers to benefit from the arrangements of the 1973 law. One of these stipulated that, as a self-employed worker is his own master, it is not correct to make reference to credit hours but rather to an indemnity of forfeiture compensating for the effort expended. This indemnity would be calculated with reference to the average income for each profession and would take into account the fact that the State will not pay more than 50 per cent of that remuneration.

The Financing of Credit Hours

The law states that credit hours will be remunerated in the normal way but that this remuneration should be limited to a monthly ceiling fixed by the government. The Royal Decree of 24th April 1973 fixed it at 28,000 B.Frs. (approx. $793) per month. This limit in fact constitutes a position of privileged participation for those with limited incomes, who do not see their remuneration reduced, and acts to the detriment of those with higher salaries.

The costs of the scheme are paid 50 per cent by the employing companies and 50 per cent by the State, which must also, however, finance any investments that may become necessary. The employers pay trimestrially 0.2 per cent of the total salary bill limited to the ceiling of "care of health" (it seems that, as in certain other countries, the rate of assessment for social security is not applied to the total amount of salaries paid but to a fraction corresponding to a ceiling fixed by regulations). The employers' contributions are collected by the Department of Social Security which puts them into an account to which the State also contributes.

While exercising his right to credit hours the employee will continue to be paid by his employer who is to be reimbursed at the end of each trimester the salary paid and the relevant social security costs. It should be mentioned that the amounts collected from the employers and the State are not subject to the general rules of the annual budget in that they can be carried forward from one financial year to the next. An estimate for the year of 1974 showed that the sum paid by the employing companies amounted to 950,000,000 B.Frs. (approx. $27 million) - a considerable sum of money. Taking an average hourly cost of about 150 B.Frs. ($4). (which was the average cost during the first trimester of the law), the scheme could finance about 12,000,000 hours of training. With an average duration of 200 hours of courses per year, approximately 40,000 workers could benefit from it.

Miscellaneous Arrangements

The law leaves several problems to be resolved in the framework of collective agreements. The fir[illegible] how the credit hours should be used. A Royal Decree of 24th April 1973 clarifying the text of the law stipulated that the credit hours could be claimed either:

- before examinations,
- one half before examination and the other half as leave each month or each week, or
- the total amount of leave could be taken on a monthly or weekly basis.

In the case of monthly or weekly claims, the leave must be taken as either complete or half days. In almost all the collective agreements the following arrangements are mentioned:

- credit hours are reserved, in priority, for attending training courses that take place during working hours;
- for each day of examinations a credit may be claimed equal to two days of normal work. In certain cases, a limit of 20% of the total credit hours is fixed;
- credit hours that remain can be taken as monthly or weekly leave.

The second problem concerns the number of workers in a company who can benefit simultaneously from credit hours. The law is clear on this point and so are the collective agreements - even though they often mention that "it is necessary to take into account the constraints of the organisation of work imposed on the enterprise and which implies notably the possibility of programming the work as a function of the number and length of the absences... and to avoid too many simultaneous absences in the same team or in the same service". (National Bipartite Commission of the Ironworks).

It seems that this matter is in fact looked after by the bipartite bodies that exist in the operating companies. It should be mentioned, however, that nothing in the regulations forbids a company from authorising a number of credit hours corresponding to an amount in excess of the contributions paid. Only the future will show how the bipartite bodies in the companies intend to deal with this issue.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

The Training Offered

The system consists of vocational education courses, which form the bulk of the courses recognised by the law of credit hours (as long as the extension of the law to self-employed workers is not implemented) and courses of general education aimed at the economic, social and cultural advancement of the workers.

The latter are organised by some associations, some unions and some teaching establishments that have obtained authority from the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Culture. This extension of the law, which is very important in the wide scope it gives to such education, meets the demands of the unions but not of the employers who feel they should not be required to finance non-vocational education.

One can group together the vocational education courses under three broad headings, taking into account the different nomenclatures used in the francophone sector and in the Flemish sector in Belgium. They are essentially concerned with technical training even if a modicum of general education is included.

	Total in 1972-73
Technical training: lower secondary level	86,775
Technical training: upper secondary level	56,110
Technical training: superior level	14,593
Total	157,480(1)

1) Provisional figures from the Ministry of National Education. The Ministry of Employment states 180,000 students enrolled.

The Participation of Workers in the Credit Hours Scheme

Lack of data prevents a precise evaluation of the credit hours scheme; but there are a few sets of figures that are interesting. According to the 1970 census the active non-agricultural, wage-earning population was 1,536,472 excluding the staff of the public administration. Against this figure one can compare the total number of people - about 160,000 - enrolled in vocational education. In other words, about 10 per cent of the working population is following these courses.

The administration's forecast for 1973-74 was that 50,000 workers would benefit from the law of credit hours (this evaluation was done before the decision to extend it to students in their first year - in fact the most numerous group). In December 1974, however, it seems that only 6,710 workers were taking advantage of the scheme - no more than 15 per cent of the total foreseen.

The reasons for this poor response are not clear. One is reluctant to attribute it just to a lack of motivation. In effect, a considerable number of people are enrolled in vocational courses and the law offers them compensation; so far this has been in little demand. Is this due to lack of information on the part of the workers, who, before they can take advantage of the law, must produce proof of their diligence on the course and inform their employers whose task it should then be to arrange for the granting of the credit hours to which they are entitled? Or is it a matter of employers ignoring the individual efforts of their personnel? Whatever the reason, it should be pointed out that the distribution of people taking courses of social mobility according to years of study (100 in the first year: 50 in the second: 30 in the third) shows a heavy drop-out rate at the end of the first year. The measure extending the law to workers during their first year (giving 25 per cent of the hours of courses followed) may yet encourage them to pursue their studies more energetically(1).

The Financial State of the Scheme

One of the results of this state of affairs is that the financial provision for the law of credit hours at present is excessive. Thus, in 1973, the receipts amount to 890 million B.Frs. (about $25 million) although only 130 million B.Frs. (about $3.7 million) were paid out of the fund. For 1974, the receipts have been estimated at 1,750 million B.Frs. ($50 million) and the expenses at 400 million B.Frs. ($11 million). This made possible the extension of the law to cover students enrolled in the first year of social mobility learning.

IV. PRESENT PROBLEMS AND THE FUTURE

As already mentioned, numerous extensions have been made to the coverage of the law. In particular, we should refer here to two of them. The first is the inclusion of general education in the courses. This came up for discussion after the law was drafted and was added to it by Royal Decree on 7th October 1974. The other is the probability that the age limit, presently fixed at 40 years of age, will be removed to accord with the wishes of both the employers' and the employees' organisations.

Two further points should be mentioned. The first is concerned with the relatively large amount of sociological discussion and consultation that goes on in Belgium. The existence itself of the law of credit hours, the debates that preceded its promulgation, and the extension of its field of coverage clearly demonstrate the importance of this process in Belgium, even if the application of the law has proved to be less successful than expected - as the small number of participants shows. The second point relates to the future of permanent education which now seems to be on the horizon in

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1) The Belgian government has launched an inquiry on this subject among the working people.

Belgium. The range of courses, the right to credit hours which applies to university courses, as well as technical courses at the secondary level, the probable extension of the law to workers of more than 40 years of age, would all constitute potential elements in a programme of recurrent education some time in the future. At present however, the provisions of the law of credit hours do not apply to internal training courses in businesses that chose to arrange them.

Annex

(This is a free translation of the Belgian legislation.)

MINISTRY OF EMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR

10th April, 1973

An Act granting credits of working hours to workers with a view to increasing their social mobility.

BAUDOUIN, King of the Belgians,
To all those whom it may concern, Greetings.
The Houses have adopted and We ratify as follows.

Chapter I - Application

Section 1. This Act applies to:

1. Workers of less than 40 years of age, engaged full-time under a contract for the hiring of labour and who attend training courses organised or supported by the State;
2. Employers.

This Act does not apply to:

1. teaching staff;
2. workers employed by the State, the Provinces, the major urban areas (agglomérations), federations of communes, communes, public establishments dependent on such bodies, and organisations of general public interest (organisations d'intérêt public).

Section 2

The King may, by order drawn up in the Council of Ministers and after having obtained the opinion of the Conseil National du Travail (National Labour Council) and of those advisory councils with special responsibilities in this sphere:

1. extend the application of this Act, either with or without certain modifications, to other categories of persons or courses than those referred to in Section 1:

2. lay down special conditions for the implementation of this Act to certain categories of workers.

Chapter II - Credits of working hours

Section 3. (1) The worker shall be entitled to absent himself from work while retaining his normal remuneration:

1. for a number of hours equal to the hours of courses in the year of studies attended, provided that he has previously successfully attended training courses for at least two years;
2. for a number of hours equal to half the hours of courses in the year of studies attended, provided that he has previously successfully attended training courses for one year.

(2) The King may increase the credits of working hours specified in sub-section (1), paragraph 2 of this Section. He may also lay down the conditions and methods for granting credits of working hours to workers who have not successfully attended training courses for one year.

(3) For the purposes of this section, normal remuneration shall be limited to an amount to be fixed by the King.

Section 4

Such credits of working hours may be used as follows:

1. either, as regards all the credits, during the period immediately preceding the end of year examinations;
2. or;
   a) as regards half the credits, in the period immediately preceding the end of year examinations, and
   b) as regards the remaining credits, in the form of leave allocated per month or per week;
3. or, as regards all the credits, in the form of leave allocated per month or per week.

A collective labour agreement made within the appropriate bipartite commission and given compulsory effect by the King shall determine whether the leave shall be used in accordance with sub-paragraphs 1, 2 or 3 above and, where appropriate, the means of carrying out the allocation referred to in sub-paragraphs 2(b) or 3. Until such collective agreements enter into force a Royal Decree shall specify the ways in which such credits of working hours shall be used.

The King may, after having consulted the National Labour Council, decide on a different allocation to that mentioned in subparagraphs 2(b) or 3.

Section 5

The worker may nevertheless use the credits of working hours when he has to absent himself from his work in order to attend courses. In this case, the number of credits of working hours so used shall in the first place be deducted from leave allocated per month or per week.

Section 6

The King may specify other methods for the use of credits of working hours in the case of workers in undertakings which employ less than 10 workers.

The number of workers relevant for the purposes of paragraph 1 of this Section is that contained in the three-monthly declaration which the employer is required to submit to the National Social Security Office on the 30th September of the year in question.

Section 7

The worker shall only be entitled to his normal remuneration in respect of those hours of absence during which he would otherwise actually have worked pursuant to his contract.

Section 8

The calculation of normal remuneration shall take account of legislation relating to paid leave.

Section 9

The hours during which the worker is absent from work by virtue of the provisions of this Chapter shall be deemed normal working hours for the purposes of welfare legislation.

Section 10

In order to obtain credits of working hours the worker shall produce a certificate stating that he is properly enrolled in an establishment providing courses covered by this Act and shall give advance notice to his employer of his absences.

Section 11

Credits of working hours shall only be granted to workers who attend courses with due diligence.

Section 12

Credits of working hours shall not be granted.

1. in respect of the same year of studies, to a worker who fails to obtain his assessment certificate after having attended the same year on two occasions;
2. for the remainder of the current academic year, to a worker who, during any one term, has improperly failed to attend more than one tenth of the course;
3. for a period of one year commencing on 1st September following the date of such finding of fact, to a worker who carries on a lucrative activity either as an employee or self-employed in the hours during which he is entitled to absent himself from work under Sections 3 and 6.

Chapter III - Financial responsibility

Section 13

The State shall be responsible for one-half of the remuneration and welfare contributions paid as a result of this Act.

Section 14

Employers may be reimbursed by the Ministry of Employment and Labour in respect of remuneration and welfare contributions paid in relation to credits of working hours.

So as to ensure the payment of that part of remuneration and welfare contributions to be borne by employers, the King may require employers to pay a contribution and shall fix its amount. The King may exempt from payment of the contribution wholly or in part, those employers covered by a "Fond de sécurité d'existence" (welfare security fund) which has accepted responsibility for the payment of the remuneration and welfare contributions referred to in paragraph 1 of this Section.

Contributions due under this Act shall be paid respectively to the Office national de sécurité social (National Social Security Office), to the Fonds national de retraite des ouvriers mineurs (National Retirement Fund for Miners) or to the Caisse de secours et de prévoyance (Security and Provident Fund) for sailors navigating under the Belgian flag, depending on whether the employers in question are covered by the Act of 27th June, 1969 amending the Decree-Act of 28th December, 1944 relating to the social security of workers, or the Decree-Act of 10th January, 1945 relating to the social security of miners and similar workers, or the Decree-Act of 7th February, 1945 relating to the social security of sailors in the merchant fleet, in accordance with the conditions and time limits laid down by the King.

Failure to pay within the time limits shall entail liability to penalties and interest for delay at the same rates and in the same conditions as those laid down by the Act of 27th June, 1969 and by the Decree-Acts of 10th January, 1945 and 7th February, 1945 referred to above and by the implementing decrees for such Act and Decree-Acts.

The total of such contributions, penalties and interest for delay mentioned in the second and fourth paragraphs of this Section shall be paid to the Minister of Employment and Labour.

The National Social Security Office, the National Retirement Fund for miners and the Security and Provident Fund for sailors navigating under the Belgian flag may claim reimbursement from the Ministry of Employment and Labour for admission expenses resulting from the application of this Section.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN DENMARK

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Evolution

In Denmark the concept of "educational leave" has not played any large part in the debate concerning educational policy or labour market policy. If the concept is understood in the sense that "an employee has a legal claim to be able to discontinue occupational employment, participate in educational activities for a period of time, and subsequently return to at least the same job", legal provisions or agreements on the labour market that have generally assured employees this opportunity have never existed in Denmark. Nevertheless, in a limited number of fields, employees have been given the opportunity of receiving training on a voluntary basis, while compulsory training exists in others in accordance with provisions or agreements on the labour market. Within the framework of the existing arrangements, the Danish labour market has displayed a considerable degree of readjustability and, as the Danish trade unions have for various reasons been reluctant to take the initiative in any general agreement on "educational leave", a change in the present conditions is not likely for the moment. However, as we shall see, there has been an expansion of education and training activities for those in the labour force over the past few years. Before 1960 almost the only type of organised activity in this field was directed towards apprentices.

Current Thinking and Discussion

That educational leave has never been a crucial political point in Denmark does not mean that the arguments normally brought forward in support of educational leave systems are unknown. It is, rather, the other way around. Present arrangements are in fact strongly influenced by viewpoints of educational and labour market policy identical with those on which the educational leave model is based.

The need for creating greater flexibility and mobility on the labour market speaks in favour of putting more stress on current offers of education to the whole labour force - including the elderly part of it. This point of view has been the basis of powerful enlargement of courses for semi-skilled workers, retraining courses, etc., and this has also played a part in current attempts to change apprentice training. Analogous points of view have by degrees been brought to bear on still larger fields of the total educational system.

The regard for securing a reasonable income for those with the lowest wages also speaks in favour of extending educational opportunities to that part of the labour force which has the poorest educational background. Experiences gained from the implementation of wage policies seem to show that real improvements for those with the lowest wage can only be obtained with difficulty through changes in the wage rates.

The need to ensure that the qualifications of the labour force correspond to the technical level in the firms, involves being able to bring skills up to date at regular intervals. This point of view has contributed to the fact that the social partners in Denmark (the state, the employers and the unions) have considerable influence on the content and implementation of labour market training.

That the need to implement something similar to the educational leave-systems in other OECD countries has not been felt as urgent in Denmark is probably due mostly to the fact that it has been possible, to a large extent, to manage the educational problems that have arisen on the Danish labour market within the framework of the existing arrangements. One should also bear in mind that OECD's analysis of the Danish labour market policy concludes that this market has shown a considerable degree of ability to adjust to changed conditions of production and demand. There is hardly any doubt about the fact that Danish labour market education and other course activities have positively contributed to this adaptation and that the need for supplementing offers of education of the educational leave type, therefore, has not been regarded as particularly pressing. Added to this, however, is a number of problems especially related to the educational leave arrangements; of these, the traditional resistance on the part of employers to further interventions in their rights is only one.

It is probably just as important that the trade unions also have misgivings about implementing a legal (or agreement-based) claim of freedom to education, as long as the employer posseses the unrestricted right to dismiss the employees. It would be possible to undermine the right to education if the person who has taken a leave of absence is not secured against dismissal for a certain period of time after he returns to his job. To implement such a special protection for the people who are following educational courses is however, not without problems. It might, for example, cause differential treatment (discrimination) between different groups of employees and this is a situation of which the trade unions, for reasons of principle, have been sceptical. As it is a tradition in Denmark only to legislate on labour market conditions when the social partners are agreed, or when pressure is exerted from one party (especially the trade unions), there has not been any basis for political initiatives concerning this issue.

II. PRESENT ARRANGEMENTS

Conditions of Eligibility

Such arrangements as exist in Denmark for educational leave of absence are those that have been made for specific groups e.g. apprentices and unskilled workers. The conditions of eligibility for each group are therefore different.

a) Apprentice Training

Today, apprentice training is regulated under the terms of a special Act, passed in October 1956, in which the employer's and employee's rights and obligations are set out. Each apprenticeship must be agreed upon in the form of a special contract, the content of which is controlled by the public employment service.

In principle, the apprentice training is designed for young people who start on vocational training between the 14th and 18th year of age, but articles of apprenticeship may also be entered into with persons above the age of 18. At a maximum, apprentice training may have a duration of 4 years and it normally finishes with a test. When this test has been passed, a special certificate is issued.

Participation in training at a vocational school is compulsory for an apprentice. Alternation between work at the firm and training at the vocational school (one of the basic elements of apprentice training) is furthermore assured by the employer being required to ensure that the apprentice participates in the school training. Moreover, the act prescribes for the firm a number of duties in relation to the apprentice, and makes it a complicated matter for the employer to be released from his contract. The many cancelled contracts are therefore primarily a result of action by the apprentices.

The Occupational Basic Training Scheme (OBT) which is expected to replace the traditional apprentice training by the end of the 70s, was started in 1969. It was established with a view to creating an educational system for young people who, having finished the 9th year of school, wish to obtain an occupational competence by means of a vocational training. It should, therefore, be viewed as an alternative to apprentice training. The system started with experimental training in some vocational fields, and its development was accelerated by the passing of a special Act in June 1972 on Occupational Basic Training. Under this act, the training was extended to all main vocational fields.

Generally speaking Occupational Basic Training appeals to the persons and age groups for which apprentice training was originally intended and the aim is that it shall gradually be enlarged in order to replace the traditional apprentice training completely. By this, it is hoped that the demands for greater flexibility and mobility in the labour market may be met more fully. The new training system's potential for providing training with greater flexibility is connected with the fact that it involves a smaller degree of branch and firm-specific training.

Basic training has a normal duration of 3-4 years. The first year is principally used for training in school; the aim being to give a general introduction to the vocational field. During the following years, a gradual choice of more specific subjects takes place and training is based on alternating periods at the firm and school respectively. Because of the structure of these training periods, it is possible to change from one specialty to another without having to repeat the whole training because a number of subjects are common to several specialisations.

b) Vocational Training

This is of three main types:

i) courses for semi-skilled workers,
ii) courses for the further training of skilled workers,
iii) retraining courses.

i) Semi-skilled workers

The courses for semi-skilled workers (started in 1960) take place at private or public schools for semi-skilled workers. At present about 200 different courses exist, covering most industrial branches. The courses are rather short and normally have a duration of 2-3 weeks. However, it is possible to link the single course into a longer-term training sequence. This is not, however, a condition for obtaining a course certificate as each course stage normally ends with a test which is certified.

The courses are primarily given as training during the day. Predominantly, they are concerned with practical training, sometimes supplemented with basic theory. The purpose of the training results in courses with a narrow trade-oriented content; general subjects do not enter into the courses. To a great extent, the courses are intended for persons with a moderate educational background, but no previous education is demanded as qualification for entry.

The courses are open to employed as well as unemployed people over the age of 18 who apply for, or have work within the fields covered by the courses. The course participant who goes directly from employment to a course will not have any claim to return to his previous job or firm. Legally, the participant is not given any job safety or job security during a course. Return to the job is dependent upon individual agreements. Such agreements may arise in the case where it is in the interest of the firm that the employee receives further training and therefore it requests him to participate in the course. There is a high probability of the firms' taking the initiative if the costs to them for the training of semi-skilled workers are small. This is precisely the case in Denmark where the contribution to the financing of the training for semi-skilled workers by firms is independent of the number of their workers participating in the courses.

ii) Courses for the further training of skilled workers

These are open to people with occupational basic training or corresponding practical experience. They are especially intended for those over the age of 18 who either have or seek employment within one of the fields which the courses cover. The aim in establishing the further training arrangements in 1965 was to provide short-term courses to give skilled workers the possibility of bringing their basic training up to date, or supplementing it. The courses are, therefore especially intended for workers past their prime who have a vocational training. Such further training has been started for 30 trades and lasts 1-4 weeks. It normally takes place during the day. As with the training for semi-skilled workers, there is no legal guarantee that the employee may return to his former job or firm.

iii) Retraining courses

These were started in 1969 with the aim of supplementing occupational mobility, which was already partly covered by the courses for semi-skilled workers and the further training courses. Retraining is normally associated with the regional development areas, the aim being to readjust manpower to industrial work and to remedy special local and occupational employment difficulties for groups in the labour market who are facing especially difficult conditions.

The characteristic feature of the retraining arrangement is that it is based on retraining for a concrete offer of work. The initiative to start retraining comes, therefore, from firms or the public employment service offices and it is started on this basis for groups of people.

Such retraining normally starts with a course which in some cases takes place at a school. This is followed by a spell at a firm where the training for the work process proper takes place while productive work is actually being done.

Naturally, the content of the teaching is solely trade oriented. The plans for retraining are drawn up by the Secretariat for Labour Market Education with technical aid from committees consisting of worker and employer representatives. After this, a special retraining committee must endorse the plans. This latter committee is composed of representatives from the Ministry of Labour and the organisations on the labour market.

On average, the retraining has a duration of 10 weeks, but it is possible to extend it to 30 weeks. A certain protection of the participants and an insurance against misuse of the arrangements by firms lies in the fact that a condition for the commencement of retraining is an agreement between the parties on permanent employment after retraining. Also the worker must possess the individual qualifications needed to follow the training.

c) Training for Public Employees

Social development has confronted the public administration with more rigorous demands for know-how as a result both of the quantitative increase in the tasks that traditionally have been borne by the administration, and of changes in their character. Realisation of the consequent need for further training of personnel has meant that opportunities for this - both theoretical and practical - are now available in several fields. Examples are the provisions made within the Government service (the Postal and Telegraph Services, the Danish State Railways, the Customs Service), the school for assistants in the municipality of the Capital, and the Danish Municipal Courses. These provisions are the result of initiative, not only on the part of the public administrations, but by personnel and trade organisations also, and among other things, may be taken as the expression of an unsatisfied need for opportunities for further training. Over the last decade the public organisations have extended the opportunities of further training, while Danmarks Forvaltningshøjskole was started in 1965 with the express aim of training public employees and meeting demands for increased professional and technical administrative knowledge. Nonetheless personnel employed in the public sector have no legal claim to training. Individual employees may indeed apply for admission to the courses of Forvaltningshøjskolen, but if participation in the classes implies exemption, in whole or in part, from normal duties, acceptance is dependent upon authorisation from the department in which the employee is working. The necessary time off, which is a condition for participation in the training, must be applied for in each individual case: there is no basic agreement or law that gives it to an employee by right. The course activity is based on the principle of offer, and public employees are under no obligation to participate in it.

The duration of a single type course varies considerably: it may be anything from 25 to 1,400 hours. There are courses for all levels in the administration, up to an including management. Normally they take place during the day, and, in some cases, they may last for a whole week.

d) Other Training

Two further groups of people should be briefly mentioned: employees in private companies and shop stewards. Many private firms - in particular the large ones - have instituted their own internal courses which the employees may follow during working hours. In some cases, this is even a condition of continued employment. There is little doubt that this is a form of training that is very widespread and has gained rapidly increasing importance in the total spectrum of education; but no statistics are yet available to show just how important it is.

For a long time the trade unions have exerted pressure to secure the right for shop stewards to participate in meetings and educational activities during working hours without loss of income. To a large extent, these aims have been considered as special provisions of protection for the shop stewards and have been integrated in collective agreements. They enable shop stewards to attend courses and such like arranged by the trade unions during working hours, even in cases where the course has no direct relationship to the production or working conditions of the firm.

Financial aspects

The financial aspects of the training we have been considering, including the support of employees taking courses and the payment of course costs themselves, naturally vary according to the scheme and target group involved.

a) Apprentice Training

The economic conditions during apprenticeship are agreed upon and set down in the articles of apprenticeship. Wages are paid according to collective agreement in areas where such an agreement exists or are established by a bipartite board where it does not. The employer maintains the remuneration and pays the school costs (fees and books) of those employed under an apprenticeship contract.

For those who are undergoing vocational training in the OBT scheme the financial support systems are rather different. While they are at the vocational school participants in OBT receive payment corresponding to apprentice wages in the same trade. They are no worse off, therefore, than participants of the same age undergoing traditional apprentice training. Wages are paid by the public administration. During periods of practical work, however, the participants are paid by the firms where they do it.

The firms have no economic obligations towards OBT apart from paying wages during the in-company trainee period. The public pays all other expenses. In the long term, this will involve a considerable increase in public expenditure as compared with the traditional apprentice training procedure where the firms are responsible for the largest share of the costs. On the other hand, of course, the firms will experience a corresponding reduction. Thus, there are strong incentives to prefer OBT-pupils to apprentices in spite of the apprentice's more specifically trade-oriented training. All the same, it has proved to be difficult to get the firms to take on trainees who have completed the first school period and are due to start their practical work. This is assumed to be connected with the fact that most firms have only a very limited knowledge about the advantages of OBT. Nor has the general decline in economic activity made it easier to find suitable jobs for the trainees.

b) Vocational Training

Categories (i), training of semi-skilled employees, and (ii) further training of skilled workers, are supported financially in the same way. The participants receive remuneration during the course period, but this remuneration is dependent upon the participant's immediately previous occupational status. The employee who goes directly from a job to a course for semi-skilled workers or for further training for skilled workers receives a wage compensation corresponding to, at most, 125 per cent of the daily rate of the government approved unemployment benefit (January 1975: 160 Danish crowns +25 per cent). Up to this maximum, the loss of income from work is remunerated completely, and is paid to wage earners, whether they are insured against unemployment or not, and this includes part-time employees. In certain cases the self-employed, housewives and others may also receive remuneration. Thus, all participants will receive at least the equivalent of unemployment benefit. Hence, the remuneration to the participants is fully defrayed from public funds, and the expense of running and establishing places of training is also to a very great extent the responsibility of the government, worker and employer organisations being obliged to cover only a small share of such expenditures.

The arrangements for category (iii), the retraining courses, are somewhat different. During a retraining course, economic support from public funds is given to the participants as well as to their employing firms. Remuneration to the participants is given in accordance with the same rules that apply to the courses for semi-skilled and skilled workers. During their stay with a firm for production training, participants receive full wages according to agreement. In return, the firm is reimbursed from public funds to the extent of the sum per participant corresponding to his remuneration during the course period. This support is gradually decreased during the retraining period, according to a plan determined in advance. The firm's share of the expenditure on retraining consists of an agreed supplement to the participant's wages which increases during the course. Here the underlying thought is that the worker is of low economic "value" to the employer at the beginning of his retraining period, while the economic advantage to the employer will increase gradually as his retraining proceeds. For this reason the employer receives progressively less support up to the time when the worker becomes fully trained. At this point the support ceases completely. While the employer bears an increasing share of the wage expenditure during the retraining period, all other expenses are paid from public funds (for instance for training at school outside the firm).

c) Public Employees' Training

All expenses in connection with the training of employees in public organisations are met from public funds. Training is free for the participants and the necessary time off from normal service - if it is granted - must be given without a decrease in salary. Thus, the employees receive full wages during the training with the right to continuous employment during the periods in which it is followed and with the security of employment after it has ended. This derives from the object of the scheme, which is to give staff members further training for the specific benefit of the department in which they are employed.

d) Other Training

Little is known about the financing of the training undertaken by private companies, but it must be assumed that they maintain normal wages for employees undergoing training.

In the matter of shop steward education it should be noted that, since the last collective agreement renewal in 1973, the employers have paid 1 øre per working hour to a special education fund. The trade unions alone have the right of disposal of three-quarters of this fund, while the rest is administered in co-operation with the employers. It has not yet been decided how the fund is to be used, but it must be considered probable that the trade unions will use it to fund an educational drive among shop stewards and other trade union representatives at the places of work.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

Training Offered

As we have seen, all the instances of worker training and education in Denmark that receive financial support or qualify, wholly or partly, for educational leave of absence are schemes of a vocational nature. The training apprentices receive in the technical schools may, however, include some topics of general education alongside the strictly vocational subjects. Indeed the teaching of civics may be included in the training plan on a par with the vocational subjects. If the subjects of general education are integrated in this way, the apprentice is obliged to follow these classes. However there are cases of general education subjects being taught where attendance by the apprentice is voluntary. This increase of general educational subjects in training courses no doubt reflects a general trend in the Danish educational system towards greater stress being placed on general knowledge and social information. During the first year of the OBT, 70-75 per cent of the teaching is vocationally oriented and the other 25-30 per cent is used for general subjects.

Participation Rates

Apprentice training taken as a whole has been declining since the middle of the 60s, as shown in the accompanying Table. The amount of apprentices is calculated as the number actually affiliated with a vocational school. Recruitment and retirement is calculated as the number of apprentices who respectively have started or have finished/interrupted the school part of the training during the year in question.

PUPILS OF THE DANISH APPRENTICE SCHOOLS 1967-72

	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Number	87,711	75,512	68,147	62,037	59,525	52,384
Entrants	28,191	29,513	29,064	29,949	24,682	20,938
Departures	40,900	42,042	34,697	31,646	27,472	26,452

The number of pupils enrolled in the OBT courses is, by contrast, rising. During the school year 1972/73, 1,128 new pupils were enrolled, making a total of 1,558 pupils engaged in an occupational basic training in that school year. The distribution over the main occupational fields were as follows:

Main Occupational Field	Number of pupils
Iron and Metal Industry	480
Building and Construction	254
Service Trades	229
Food Industry	119
Graphical Trades	96
Total Industry and Crafts	1,178
Field of Commerce	380
All occupational Fields	1,558

As already mentioned, it is expected that OBT will replace the traditional apprentice training by the end of the 70s. A strong increase in the intake of pupils is therefore expected. The training is structured around the school training which is interspersed with periods of trainee service at the firms. It is therefore decisive for the success of the experiment that a sufficient number of trainee jobs is obtained. A special campaign towards relevant firms is therefore under preparation. The need for trainee jobs is estimated to be 15,000 in 1978, while it was only 2,000 in 1974.

Within the field of adult occupational training referred to above, a total of 4,920 courses and retraining measures were started in 1973/74 and a total of 47,250 people participated. The distribution of activities was as follows:

	Number of courses	Number of participants
Semi-skilled worker training	3,748	34,069
Further training	1,122	12,655
Retraining	50	526
Total	4,920	47,250

Of the participants in semi-skilled worker training, 5,955 were women and 28,114 men. Participation in courses from the principal fields of occupation was the following:

SEMI-SKILLED WORKER TRAINING

Field of occupation	Number of participants
Building and construction	6,693
Iron and metal industry	10,238
Land transport	8,097
Other branches	9,041
Total	34,069

As mentioned before, the courses for semi-skilled workers may be linked to a longer training. This possibility was utilised by many, for, on average, each participant attended 1.75 courses.

The intake of participants is unequally distributed over the year, as it is influenced by the seasonal variations in unemployment. This means that the use of the capacity is rather low during the summer months while the schools are fully occupied during the winter. A smooth and complete use of the capacity all the year round would enable the training of approximately 60,000 participants per annum.

During 1973/1974, training schemes for public employees were followed by 3,200 participants. Attendance had been more or less the same as this during the previous year.

Financing

Figures of expenditure on schemes mentioned in this analysis are available for public expenditure on occupational training. In 1973/74 they were as follows:

Semi-skilled worker training	200 million crowns
Further training	50 million crowns
Retraining	7 million crowns

It must be remembered, however, that even in cases where the employers are required to continue paying the remuneration of employees during training as in the case of apprentices, the costs of the running of the schools, payment of interest etc., is financed from public funds. As this system is replaced by the OBT, obviously the expenditure of public funds will rise. For example, running expenses of OBT will increase from about D.Kr.10 million in 1974 to about D.Kr.300 million per year (1970 prices) in 1977.

IV. THE FUTURE

There appears no reason to believe that Denmark will replace the structures of the existing training systems with a system more in line with the I.L.O. definition of educational leave of absence. On the contrary, there is every indication from "The Report on Support to Adults during Occupational Training" that the present occupational training policies (viewed as part of Denmark's labour market policy) will be extended.

The report, published in 1974, points out that the various arrangements which exist are aimed at either giving younger workers primary training or attempt to increase the adaptation ability of the manpower by means of short training courses or refresher courses. The arrangements do not cover people who, after some years of employment, want to take training exceeding these short courses. There is in fact a great need for training arrangements for this group of persons who (especially the elderly) become unemployed as a result of market trends and structural changes and are the least qualified to obtain a new job unaided.

In this report, a support system was proposed that takes the form of an enlargement of the occupational training support system. It was put forward as a matter of labour market policy, as evinced by the fact that support would generally be given only for participation in vocational training. No element of instruction in general subjects enters into the proposed scheme of training.

The beneficiaries of the new support system are people over the age of 25 or those who, during the 6 years before the start of training, have had at least 4 years of occupational employment. A lower age limit would involve special problems as support might be given to people who are also covered by other arrangements, and as a result of the difference in the levels of support there would be a risk of an inexpedient dislocation of recruitment to the various schemes. The age limit is not invariable as it is thought reasonable that there should be a possibility of choosing between this form of occupational training and the others that are open to persons above the age of 18. It is not the intention, however, to give support to the initial training of young people.

Apart from the age restrictions, a number of conditions related to labour market policy would have to be satisfied before the training support could be given. It is part of the conception that the training should be seen as considerably improving the employment potential of the person concerned, and that it must be reasonably certain that he can obtain durable employment within a field of work where a need for manpower is known to exist. It is not made a condition that the person in question should be unemployed, although the arrangement specifically covers people who might experience difficulties with employment and earnings. In the proposal, the duration of the training to which support would be given is fixed at a maximum of one year.

The types of people whom the support arrangement is to cover deserves attention. For the most part they will be people who have already established themselves and are probably still on the labour market with a corresponding income and standard of living. This means that they will frequently be people who carry the burden of supporting dependents. This should elicit a high level of support; nevertheless it must be assumed that the available resources will be limited. So it is proposed that the maximum contribution should amount to 80 per cent of the maximum paid as unemployment benefit.

One of the reasons put forward for this type of solution, rather than the adoption of some form of educational leave of absence, is the desire to facilitate the movement of labour between skills and industry sectors. It is felt that educational leave of absence would act as a barrier to this by tying vocational qualifications too closely to a particular skill, company or industrial sector.

This report on Support for Adults during Occupational Training, taken against the background of the country's difficult current economic position and high unemployment rate, suggests that Denmark's labour market policy (at least in the short to medium term) will give priority to the adaptation of the workforce to meet changing economic conditions and the updating of occupational skills rather than to a broader interpretation of educational leave of absence.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN FRANCE

I. BACKGROUND

Numerous initiatives have been taken by the public authorities in the matter of adult training and the law of the 16th July, 1971 should be considered as the outcome, albeit provisional, of complex and multiple arrangements. We will limit ourselves here to the examination of the major steps in its development which from "social mobility" has resulted in "continuing vocational training".

Individual Training for Workers

Around this idea can be grouped three legislative texts:

a) The Law of the 31st July, 1969 on social mobility which was intended to organise the financial participation of the State in those training courses designed to:

- train skilled and unskilled workers,
- improve the training of staff and technicians.

These courses are given either as full-time or as evening classes for workers holding a job.

Several bipartite bodies were established for organising the application of the law:

- the Committee for the Co-ordination of Social Mobility
- the Social Mobility Delegation which constituted the executive bodies of the Committee
- the National Fund for Social Mobility.

These arrangements met with a certain success: in 1966 400,000 people were enrolled in courses for social mobility. But as this training was given on a part-time basis, preparing for traditional diplomas demanded from those enrolled an effort and a perseverance that was not easily compatible with social life. The numbers enrolled in the courses of social mobility supported from the National Education budget fell to 230,000 in 1970 and to 100,000 in 1973 as the possibilities of training during working hours increased. In future, this type of teaching will probably be provided at a reduced level more specifically to meet the requirements of those who are not engaged in active working life.

b) The Law of the 3rd December, 1966 defined the guidelines of vocational training and inaugurated a system of agreements (known as conventions) between the State and the training institutions. It recognised the principle of a right to a non-remunerated leave of a maximum duration of one year for workers undergoing training controlled by the State. The State gives assistance to the trainee to compensate for the loss of salary.

The principle behind this law was to increase the "apprenticeship tax" paid by the employers from 0.4 to 0.6 per cent of the sum of salaries paid and to collect that part of it not used by firms for training their own personnel into the National Fund already mentioned. The formal name of this is the National Fund of Vocational Training and of Social Mobility.

Following on the law of 3rd December, 1966 conventions were contracted between the State and the private and public training institutions and these were ratified by the law of 1971. The system continues to be used when State aid is provided, and its success has been considerable:

Table 1

THE INCREASING APPLICATION OF CONVENTIONS (LAW OF 1966)
(including the training of apprentices)

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
Number of trainees	190,000	310,000	418,000	570,000	620,000

Besides the innovation introduced by the mechanism of convention, the law of 1966 established the administrative bodies that now "manage" the law of 1971 (with the addition of certain decentralised bodies created since the law of 1966). These are:

- The Inter-ministerial Committee, presided over by the Prime Minister, which defines the general guidelines and takes the fundamental decisions on vocational training policy;
- The Permanent Group of Senior Administrators who prepare the Inter-ministerial Committee's work and see to the application of its decisions;
- The National Council for Vocational Training for Social Mobility and Employment, presided over by the Prime Minister, which issues the decisions taken concerning apprenticeship and continuing vocational training and proposes measures for facilitating the co-ordination of public and private initiatives;

- The Permanent Delegation of the National Council instituted to reinforce the discussion process with the social partners. This is regularly consulted on all the problems posed by the implementation of the policy for continuing vocational training;
- The Management Council of the Fund for Vocational Training and Social Mobility which works out each year a project for the allocation of the fund's credits and supervises its execution.

The General Secretariat of the Inter-ministerial Committee for Vocational Training and Social Mobility assures administrative support for these different bodies and gives general guidance to activities carried out at the regional level.

c) The Law of the 31st December, 1968 was intended to bring all systems of aid to trainees into line with the principles established by the law of 1966. State aid could be given in the following circumstances:

- retraining after loss of employment,
- the adaptation of young workers to industrial life,
- preventive action to enable trainees to cope with technological change,
- vocational promotion,
- preliminary training and the training of young workers without vocational qualifications,
- the maintenance and updating of knowledge.

The categories of eligibility were re-confirmed in the law of 1971.

The social partners were encouraged to sign collective agreements for the creation of Training Assurance Funds (FAF) to receive employers' and workers' contributions for financing courses for the "maintenance and updating of knowledge". However, the political situation of 1968 and the years following and the first discussions which were to result in the Law of 1971 did not permit the actual realisation of these arrangements.

The expenses of the Fund of Vocational Training and Social Mobility (FFPPS) have grown in the following fashion:

Table II

EXPENSES OF THE FFPPS (operating costs only)
(in millions of francs)

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975 proposed
Disbursements	296.4	309.6	304.6	325.7	373.1	426.2	467.8
Remuneration of trainees	-	-	402.1	550.2	591.5	868.3	1,048.2

From the Bipartite Agreements of 9th July, 1970 to the Law of 16th July, 1971

Discussion of the agreements of 1970 started at the time of the signature of the agreement of Grenelle (26th May, 1968) which was made in order to resolve the social crisis. One of the clauses stipulated that the social partners should study the establishment of a training system that would improve the qualifications of workers. The agreements also contained a series of other bipartite decisions concerning, in particular, security of employment. It was in this special social context that the agreement of July 1970 was signed. This agreement laid down that workers in the economic sectors represented at the time of signing should have the right of improving and completing their skills without breaking their employment contracts. To this end, the duration of the leave given could be one year in the case of full-time training or 1,200 hours if training was undertaken on a part-time basis. Certain conditions of eligibility were stated, relative to: seniority in the firm, diplomas already acquired, the proximity of retirement and the maximum number of workers simultaneously able to benefit for leave.

The financial arrangements were the following:

- in the case of mass redundancy, the expenses of training and the salaries of the workers would be paid by the employer during the entire duration of the training provided for in the letter of redundancy (subject to the official employment services);
- in the case of in-service workers, several possibilities were allowed for:

a) training proposed by the employer: the expenses of the training and salaries would be paid by the company up to a limit of one year for full-time or 1,200 hours for part-time training,

b) training chosen by the worker from a list of courses agreed by the Bipartite Employment Commissions: the training and the salary would be paid by the employer up to a limit of 160 hours,

c) other training: leave would be given but the expenses and loss of salary would be borne by the worker, although there were possibilities of his obtaining aid.

These agreements of 1970 established a bipartite management for workers' training and they were followed on the 30th April 1971 by similar agreements for staff.

But although the founding of such a policy of conventions constituted, in France, an innovation in the employer/union relationship, several difficulties made those responsible for policy feel that legislative arrangements were necessary. Firstly, the workers in small and middle size firms did not benefit from the agreements, nor did those who worked in agriculture or trade. This discrimination had to be abolished. Secondly, the dialogue between the employers and the unions had not decided on firm procedures for financing the system. Finally, only vocational training was envisaged. Thus, the idea took shape for a law that incorporated the provisions of the preceding tests, but included also the decisions in the agreement of 1970 and preserved the suppleness of the policy of conventions between employers and trade unions.

II. SUBSTANCE OF THE LAW OF THE 16th JULY 1971 AND ITS FINANCING

The title of this law (translated) is: The Organisation of Continuing Vocational Training within the Framework of Permanent Education. Its first article def[illegible] the [illegible] employed:

> "Permanent vocational tra[illegible]s a[illegible]al obligation. It is concerned with initi[illegible]ing [illegible] subsequent training designed for ad[illegible] and for [illegible] already engaged in working life or [illegible] abo[illegible]in it.
> Subsequent training constitutes continuing professional training.
> Continuing vocational training is part of permanent education. Its objective [illegible] enable the adaptation of workers to changes in the techniques and conditions of work, to encourage their social mobility (by access to the different levels of culture and vocational qualifications) and their own contribution to cultural, economic and social development."

The law is very general. It gives powers to the institutions charged with continuing vocational training by restating most of the provisions outlined above and embodied in the law of 1966. Next, it defines the framework within which the training will be carried out, namely the conventions that can be established either between the State and the training establishments for matters that concern the State's own responsibilities, between employing companies and the training establishments or between all three types of institution. The law pronounces upon the means for educational leave from which the workers can benefit, and lays down the machinery for State intervention in matters of vocational training and social mobility. It states the obligations of employment companies (only those with more than 10 employees are concerned) and the financial assistance that should be given to trainees and the arrangements applicable to central or local government employees.

In the matter of educational leave, the novelty in this law is its reference to personnel. So far as concerns personnel in the public administration, the State is free like any other employer to deploy its manpower as it wishes within the framework of any arrangements it may have negotiated.

Conditions of Eligibility and the Right to Leave

As already mentioned, the law of 1971 has several other objectives. On the one hand it guarantees, under certain conditions, the workers' right to educational leave, on the other it sanctions the efforts of employers in this same direction. This double objective can create some confusion because, despite aid from the State and the guarantee that it assures to the worker, companies are left complete freedom to organise the training of their personnel as they wish, within the framework of the law.

Thus, assistance from the State is only forthcoming for certain types of training, namely:

- courses for retraining and the prevention of unemployment, or for workers threatened with redundancy,
- periods of adaptation designed to facilitate access to first employment for young workers or to a new type of employment for salaried workers,
- vocational upgrading courses for salaried and non-salaried workers,
- pre-training for young unemployed workers between 16 and 18 years.

If a workers asks to undergo such training, the benefit of leave is his by right but the course and the institutuion that offers it must be agreed by the State. Where a company organises training for its own personnel it is free to choose where this is carried out. Thus, as a general rule, the law imposes a minimum training obligation on companies, leaving them complete organisational freedom, but it lays down the conditions under which the State should contribute. The workers may apply to the public authority to follow one of the types of training just listed subject only to the conditions that he is not the holder of a diploma of higher education or of professional education less than three years old, and that he has been employed by his company for at least two years.

A further clause lays down that the number of workers taking educational leave at the same time may not exceed 2 per cent of the total work force, or in the case of companies with less than 100 employees, the number of hours of educational leave granted may not exceed 2 per cent of the total annual working hours.

The length of leave that may be taken individually is the same as that stated in the agreements of 9th July, 1970 namely one year or 1,200 hours. In no case can this be deducted from annual paid leave.

Finally, special allowances are made for those under 20 years old who have no vocational qualification and are not employed under an apprenticeship contract. These workers are exempt from the length of employment conditions and, during their first two years of work in a company, can benefit from leave of 100 hours per year to follow State recognised training courses.

It is important to realise that the law lies within the framework of the inter-professional agreements concluded in 1970 between the trade unions and the employers. A later decree (10th December, 1971) allows that, in companies who have no agreement with the trade union organisations in training matters, the number of workers (or of hours) involved in educational leave for courses at the request of the company may reach 4 per cent. Furthermore, it is now compulsory that works councils be consulted on problems relating to vocational training and "informed of the possibilities of leave open to workers, the conditions under which this leave has been granted, and the results obtained hitherto". Neglect to consult works councils in such matters renders a company liable to a fine. In 1973, 1,200 employers (out of 113,000 subject to the law) were thus penalised to the extent of Frs.7.5 million.

Financing the Law of 1971

As already explained, the law of 1971 made clear the State's role in specifying the nature of the training for which the benefit of leave was a right and insuring remuneration for the trainees. In certain cases this remuneration can attain 110 per cent of the last salary received. By its intervention, the State offers some training possibilities to workers or to certain categories of people whom it judges of priority (young unemployed workers, mothers of families and the like). If the employers of a company participate in these training courses, they are taken under the wing of the State but the company can add to the payment from public funds if it so chooses, for example, by maintaining the trainee's level of income. In this case, the costs of these additional payments are deducted from the levy the company has to pay.

The law of 1971 required companies with more than 10 employees to allocate funds to training, the amount being calculated as a proportion of its wages bill (0.8 per cent in 1972, 1 per cent in

1974, 2 per cent in 1976). The company must prove to the administration that this expenditure has been incurred, and it can be defrayed in a variety of ways. For example, the company can decline to make the expenditure on training operations correspond to 1 per cent and forfeit the difference to the State. In 1972, the contribution for "insufficient training effort" amounted to Frs.171 million on a total of Frs.2,991 million. From a financial point of view, therefore, it is a dual system: certain operations and certain priority groups are financed by the State as national obligations within the normal budgetary system, while the companies for their part must make funds available for the training of their personnel.

Table III

FINANCIAL PROVISIONS BY THE STATE FOR TRAINING OTHER THAN FOR ITS OWN PERSONNEL
(in millions of Francs)

Operating costs	1972	1973	1974	1975
Vocational training and social mobility	326	373	426	468
Other public bodies	617	657	756	934
Trainees' remuneration	550	592	868	1,048
Functioning, Total	1,493	1,622	2,050	2,450
Equipment (additional to that provided by the Ministry of National Education	230	263	273	263
General Total	1,723	1,885	2,323	2,713

The contribution made by companies is more difficult to measure because some of them do not declare all the expenses incurred. All that can be cited, therefore, is the figures officially presented to parliament (Table IV).

Table IV

FINANCIAL OUTLAY BY COMPANIES
(Figures for 1972 and 1973 only are available)
(in millions of Francs)

	1972	1973
Course expenses	1,572.5	1,807
Trainees' remuneration	1,183	1,517
Equipment	64.5	66
Total	2,820	3,390

In 1974 a total of some Frs.7 billion was devoted to the financing of training, this being more than 17 per cent of the Ministry of National Education's total budget.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

The Training Offered

a) Courses organised with the aid of the State

It has been shown that the State intervenes in favour of several types of training. But educational leave in the strict sense does not arise in the case of all of them, for example those aimed at the unemployed, women wishing to take up employment, or young people who are not yet at work. For the courses to which educational leave does apply the total numbers in training in 1973 were distributed as follows (there is no information as to their precise vocational field):

- preparation for a vocation demanding high training	11.2 per cent
- preparation for an occupation at the level of advanced technician	21.5 per cent
- Preparation for a craft at foreman or technician level	31 per cent
- preparation for occupations at a level of skilled worker	28.5 per cent
- preparation for an occupation at the level of unskilled worker	7.8 per cent
TOTAL	100 per cent

The average duration of these courses is 340 hours and around 30 per cent of them take place in State teaching establishments. In 1973 special vocational training was taken up as follows:

- 5.9 per cent prepared for agricultural occupations
- 34.2 per cent prepared for industrial occupations
- 22.3 per cent prepared for service sector occupations
- 37.6 per cent undertook general training mostly at an advanced level.

b) Training courses organised at the expense of employers.

Companies may either organise training courses themselves or come to an agreement with an external training organisation. The first of these methods accounted for 56 per cent of the total number of courses in 1973. Little information exists on the exact nature of the courses followed. It can however be stated that their average duration was 60 hours which is much less than in the State assisted sector.

The Participation of Workers

As we have seen already, it is difficult from among all the trainees on State courses to single out those who are on educational leave - that is to say those who are salaried and who have a job. They form only part of those who benefit from training activities called "conventionnées" within which come all the courses demanding the physical presence of the trainees. Participation in these has been as follows:

	1971	1972	1973	1974 estimated
Adaptation	52,000	69,000	68,000	66,000
Vocational advancement	61,000	76,000	118,000	115,000
Updating and maintenance	170,000	273,000	270,000	240,000
Total	283,000	418,000	456,000	421,000 (1)

1) The total numbers participating in all types of State-provided training as shown in Table III, rose to 920,000 in 1974 (estimates). This figure includes the unemployed, those attending evening courses, those receiving instruction by correspondence, and so on.

The companies' statistics are clearer if not more precise. The number of wage earners has increased from 854,000 in 1972 to 1,420,000 in 1973. It is to these wage earners and their employer's efforts that we shall now turn.

One notices first of all a great variation in workers' participation depending on the size of the company to which they belong. There is variation also in the average duration of courses which increases from 46 hours in companies with less than 50 employees to 70 hours in the larger ones.

Our second observation concerns the variation in participation according to occupational status. It is not possible in France to have a breakdown of the employed population by professional groups other than those in the population census.(1) However, we know that in 1973 24 per cent of trainees were labourers or unskilled workers, 37 per cent were skilled workers and qualified employees, 23 per cent were personnel with technical qualifications or foremen and 16 per cent engineers or executives. Thus, close to 40 per cent of trainees were individuals who already had a significant amount of vocational training. Nevertheless an evolution

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1) The last was taken in 1968, making it very old.

Table V

WORKER PARTICIPATION IN RELATION TO THE SIZE OF THE COMPANY(1973)(1)

	10-19 paid employees	20-49 paid employees	50-499 paid employees	500-1,000 paid employees	more than 1,000 paid employees	Total
Total number of paid employees	600,000	1,380,000	3,180,000	1,860,000	2,810,000	9,830,000
Total number of trainees	11,200	51,000	322,700	299,700	703,200	1,387,800
Participation rate	2%	3%	10%	16%	25%	14%

1) The total number of trainees involved with the Training Assurance Fund (FAF) (bipartite bodies for collection of the funds) must be added to this table. In 1973, this was 36,000 companies with 2,100,000 employees. The number of trainees was 32,800, making the participation rate 15.6%.

favourable to the less qualified categories is appearing, as for example in 1972 when 44 per cent of the trainees were technicians or executives. A further point is that the average rate of participation is 10 per cent for women and 16 per cent for men.

Another element of uncertainty should be pointed out. As we have seen, companies can discharge their financial obligations for training in several ways:

- by giving their contribution to the State and undertaking little or no training themselves,
- by themselves providing training of their own personnel,
- by contributing to the training insurance fund management in a bipartite fashion by the unions and the employers (the FAF),
- by contributing to the training associations (the ASFO) managed solely by the employers.

The spirit of the law being a wider adoption of joint decision-making in the social sphere, one would hope that the FAF would be gathering the greatest part of companies' contributions. In fact, in 1972 this option represented only about 6 per cent and in 1973 8 per cent of the companies' outlay (a rate calculated on running expenses - not including the remuneration of the trainees). This deviation from the spirit of the law may well pose serious problems for the future, especially in view of the modest role played by works councils which at present constitute the only element of joint decision-making in the private sector.

IV. THE FUTURE

The law of 1971 has been overtaken by a very lengthy administrative regulation which does not facilitate either the work of the companies, or, above all, the worker's understanding of his rights. The law and its texts of application specifically lay down that the right to educational leave is an individual right. This can be exercised either within the framework for training drawn up by the employing companies or in one of the courses sponsored by the State. But both of these give preference to vocational training, as indeed the law would seem to encourage them to do; the only courses of general education are those which are offered to staff personnel for whom general education and professional activity are closely linked. If the worker wishes to follow a course of his choice which is not in either of the two vocational categories just mentioned, he theoretically has the right to leave, but it will be unpaid. Nor will he any longer benefit even from the social services. Changes in these regulations are currently being undertaken.

There are no data on the extent to which the individual right is being exercised apart from the fact that in 1973 about 3 per cent of course hours was not remunerated. This is perhaps an indication of what is going on. It is therefore probable that in the future union claims will be concentrated on three main themes:

- more joint decision making in the management of the system,
- the reduction of inequalities to the benefit of lower skilled workers,
- the improvement of conditions for exercising the individual right to educational leave of absence.

Annex

Extracts from the
ACT No.71-575 OF 16th JULY, 1971

(This is a free translation of the French legislation)

Concerning the organisation of continuing vocational training within the framework of lifelong education. (Journal officiel of 17th July, 1971)

The National Assembly and the Senate have adopted,

The President of the Republic promulgates an Act in the following terms:

Section 1

Lifelong vocational training shall constitute a national obligation. It shall comprise initial training and subsequent training for adults and young people already participating or about to participate in working life.

Such subsequent training shall be known as continuing vocational training.

Continuing vocational training shall form a part of lifelong education. Its aim is to enable workers to adapt to changing techniques and working conditions, to encourage their social mobility by giving access to different levels of education and different vocational qualifications and to stimulate their contribution to cultural, economic and social development.

The state, local authorities, public bodies, public and private educational establishments, associations, professional organisations, trade union and family organisations and private firms shall participate in the provision of continuing training.

Title I
Vocational training institutions

Section 2

Vocational training and social mobility shall be the subject of a policy co-ordinated and agreed in consultation with, in particular, organisations representing employers and employees and those representing independent workers.

With this aim, an inter-departmental committee shall be set up under the Prime Minister, whose Vice-Chairman shall be the Minister of Education, together with a permanent group of senior civil servants, whose Chairman shall be appointed by the Prime Minister. These bodies shall be assisted in drawing up and implementing policy relating to vocational training, social mobility and employment, by a national council for vocational training, social mobility and employment containing in particular representatives of the public authorities and the vocational and trade union organisations concerned.

Regional and departmental committees for vocational training, social advancement and employment shall be set up on the same lines.

The organisation and functioning of the committees and councils mentioned above shall be determined by Decree.

Section 3

The inter-departmental committee for vocational training and social mobility shall, on the basis of the needs of social mobility and of cultural, economic and social development, decide the main guidelines of public policy, with a view to:-

stimulating activities in the fields of vocational training and social mobility;

providing financial or technical support for the various initiatives taken in these fields.

Such activities and initiatives may relate to the training of either trainees or instructors.

Title II

Vocational training agreements

Section 4

Activities concerned with vocational training or social mobility mentioned in Section 1 above may be made the subject of an agreement. Such agreement may be between two or more parties. The agreement shall specify in particular:-

the nature, subject matter, duration and numbers attending the training courses to be set up;

the teaching and technical resources to be used;

responsibility for payment of the expenses of training the instructors and their remuneration;

when it involves employees, the facilities granted as appropriate to such employees for the purposes of attending the training courses in question, and in particular the leave, special arrangements or reductions of working hours accorded to them by provisions of the law, regulations or contract;

the means of examining the acquired knowledge of trainees and the nature of the award resulting from the training given;

the responsibility for the expenses of running the training courses and for the remuneration of trainees and, where appropriate, for the expenses of constructing and equipping training centres;

the means of resolving on an amicable basis any disputes arising from the implementation of the agreement.

Section 5

Enterprises, groups of enterprises, associations, private bodies and establishments, professional, trade union or family organisations local authorities, public establishments, in particular chambers of trade and industry, guild chambers of trade, chambers of agriculture, and organisations dependent on such bodies, shall participate in these agreements either as parties seeking training facilities, or with a view to providing technical or financial assistance towards the realisation of training programmes, or as suppliers of training.

Section 6

Public education establishments, the "Office" of the Radiodiffusion-télévision française and adult vocational training centres supported by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Population shall be parties to agreements under Section 4:-

either with one of the bodies seeking training facilities mentioned in Section 5;

or with the State when the initiative is taken by the State, with a view to contributing, over and above their own lifelong education functions, to the development of continuing vocational training as provided for in such agreements, by means of their resources of manpower and equipment.

Title III

Study leave

Section 7

I. Throughout their working lives employees not falling within the categories mentioned under Title VII of this Act and who wish to attend training courses approved by the State for the purposes of this Section shall be entitled to study leave on application to their employers.

The only employees not entitled to such study leave are those in possession of a diploma of long-cycle higher education or a vocational diploma for less than three years, and employees whose period of service in the firm is less than two years.

II. In establishments with more than 100 employees, when several employees who fulfil the conditions stated in paragraph I of this Section request study leave, compliance with some of these requests may be deferred so that the percentage of employees absent from the establishment at one and the same time shall not exceed two per cent of the total number of employees in the said establishment.

III. In establishments with less than 100 employees compliance with requests may be deferred if the number of hours of study leave requested exceeds two per cent of the total number of hours worked in the year.

However the number of hours of study leave to which the employees of such establishments are entitled may, at their request, be carried over from one year to the next provided that such accumulation does not extend over more than four years.

IV. Such leave shall be for the duration of the training course but shall not exceed one year in the case of a continuous full-time course, or exceed 1,200 hours in the case of courses constituting a teaching cycle made up of discontinuous or part-time periods of study.

The leave may nevertheless exceed one year or 1,200 hours in the case of training courses for "vocational advancement" referred to in Section 10 below and included in the special list mentioned in Section 24 of this Act.

The granting of such leave is obligatory except where the employer considers, after having consulted the works committee, or where there is no such committee the staff representatives, that the absence of the employee could have harmful consequences for the production and operation of the firm. In the event of disagreement either of the parties may refer the matter to the factory inspector responsible for the firm who may act as arbitrator.

VI. Periods of study leave cannot be set off against annual paid leave. For the purposes of determining his entitlement to annual paid leave the employee shall be treated as having worked during periods of study leave.

Periods of study leave shall be treated in the same manner as regards rights accruing to the employee by virtue of the length of his service in the firm.

VII. Employees taking study leave may be remunerated by their employers as a result of contractual provisions. The State may pay the remuneration of employees or a part of such remuneration in the conditions set out in Title VI of this Act.

VIII.The approval referred to in paragraph I of this Section shall be given by a decision of the Prime Minister, after having obtained the views of the permanent group mentioned in Section 2 and on the basis of the interest of the particular training course in relation to continuing vocational training as a whole.

IX. As regards employees of firms not covered by an agreement between the most representative professional and trade union organisations on the national level, a decree of the Counseil d'Etat shall set out in particular:

1. The rules for determining, by establishment, disregarding the study leave mentioned in Section 8 below, the maximum percentage of employees who may be released for study leave at the same time or the maximum percentage of working hours which may be allocated for study leave during a period of one year or more;
2. The conditions and time limits for submitting applications to employers according to the length of training courses, and the time limits for employers' decisions (giving reasons) on such applications;
3. The conditions in which employers may if necessary postpone the taking of study leave by reason of the requirements of the firm or its operation;
4. The rules for determining, for an individual employee, the frequency of his entitlement to study leave under the present Act, disregarding study leave which he may previously have taken under Section 8.

X. Employees mentioned in the first paragraph of this Section may, by virtue of contractual provisions, obtain leave for the purposes of teaching, either within firms, or in establishments or centres specified in Section 6 and in those which provide training as mentioned in Section 5.

Employees on leave for teaching purposes shall not be taken into consideration for the purposes of fixing the number of persons entitled to training leave as determined by the rules contained in II and III above.

Section 8

I. Employees who do not possess a vocational qualification and are not parties to a contract of apprenticeship shall be entitled, during their first two years in the firm and until the end of their 20th year of age, to study leave for the purposes of attending training courses approved by the State under this Section. Such study leave can not be refused.

II. Such study leave, which shall not exceed 100 hours in any one year, may not be set against annual paid leave. The study leave shall be treated as a period of normal employment for purposes of determining an employee's entitlement to annual paid leave.

The study leave shall also be treated as a period of normal employment as regards rights accruing to the employee by virtue of the length of his service with the firm.

III. In the event of disagreement arising from the application of this Section either of the parties may refer the matter to the factory inspector responsible for the firm who may act as arbitrator.
IV. The approval referred to in paragraph I of this Section shall be given by a decision of the Prime Minister, after having obtained the views of the permanent group mentioned in Section 2, and on the basis of the interest of the particular training course in relation to continuing vocational training as a whole.
V. A decree of the Conseil d'Etat shall lay down conditions for the implementation of this Section; the decree shall specify in particular:
1. The minimum period which the employee is required to serve with the firm before becoming entitled to study leave;
2. The conditions and time limits for submitting applications to employers and the time limits for decisions by employers (giving reasons) on such applications;
3. The conditions in which employers may if necessary postpone granting leave by reason of the requirements of the firm or its operation.

Title IV
State assistance

Section 9

The State shall contribute towards financing activities in the fields of vocational training and social mobility which comply with the main guidelines and intervention criteria laid down by the interdepartmental committee for vocational training and social mobility after consultations, within the bodies set up for this purpose, with professional and trade union organisations.

The financial contribution of the State may concern the expenses of operating training courses or, where appropriate, the expenses of constructing or equipping training centres.

For these purposes the Prime Minister or the ministers concerned shall enter into agreements under Section 4 of this Act. The detailed means of operation of such agreement shall be determined by decree.

When such agreements relate to training centres managed by one or more firms, they shall be the subject, before being finalised, of consultations with the works committee or committees involved, in application of the provisions of the 3rd paragraph of Section 2 of the ordinance of 22nd February, 1945, as amended by Section 2 of Act No. 66-427 of 18th June, 1966.

Moreover, the State shall contribute towards the remuneration of trainees engaged in vocational training according to the rules laid down in Title VI of this Act.

Section 10

A financial contribution may be made by the State for any of the following types of training activities;

1. Courses known as "redeployment courses" (stages de conversion) and "preventive courses" (stages de prévention) available to persons of at least 18 years of age. The first are designed to prepare workers whose contracts are terminated for jobs requiring a different qualification or to enable farm workers and unpaid members of their families or non-wage-earners in occupations other than agriculture to enter new occupations; the second are designed to reduce the risks of qualifications being unsuited to developments in techniques and in the organisation of firms by preparing workers threatened with dismissal for a change of occupation either within or outside the firm which employs them;
2. Courses known as "adaptation courses" (stages d'adaptation). They are designed to help workers possessing a contract of employment and paid by their firm in taking up their first job or a new job, in particular in the case of young workers possessing a vocational qualification;
3. Courses known as "vocational advancement" courses (stages de promotion professionnelle) for either employees or non-wage-earners with a view to their acquiring a higher qualification;
4. Courses known as "refresher and improvement courses" (stages d'entretien ou de perfectionnement des connaissances) for employees in possession of a contract of employment or for non-wage-earners with a view to maintaining or improving their knowledge and their education;
5. Pre-training courses, training courses, preparatory courses for working life or specialised courses for young people from 16 to 18 years of age not in possession of contracts of employment.

Section 11

The funds allocated by the State to the finance of activities in the field of continuing vocational training shall form part of the Prime Minister's budget or the budgets of the ministries concerned.

A document setting out the funds requested for the following year and the use of those granted for the previous year and the current year shall be submitted annually in support of the draft finance Act. This document shall also set out the use made of the employers' contribution under Title V of this Act.

Section 12

Credits available for payment of liabilities assumed by the State under paragraphs two and three of Section 9, shall appear in the Prime Minister's budget under the heading "vocational training and social mobility fund".

This fund may, moreover, be used to finance studies or pilot experiments.

Credits relating to remuneration or grants paid directly by the State to trainees engaged in vocational training, or reimbursed by the State under the Act, shall appear in the Prime Minister's budget.

Title V

Financial contribution by employers to continuing vocational training

Section 13

All employers with 10 employees or more, except for the State, local authorities and their public establishments of an administrative nature, must contribute to the development of continuing vocational training by providing finance each year for training activities of the types defined in Section 10 of this Act.

Section 14

Employers must contribute to the finance of training activities mentioned in Section 13 to the extent of sums equivalent, in 1972, to at least 0.80 per cent of the total sum, as defined in Article 231-I of the General Tax Code, paid in wages and salaries during the current year. This figure should rise to two per cent in 1976.

Employers may fulfil this obligation:-

1. By financing training activities for the benefit of their staff.

Such activities shall be organised either within the firm itself, or pursuant to agreements made under the provisions of Title II of this Act.

The whole of such expenditure by firms shall be taken into account, without deduction being made of any assistance received from the State under this Act.

When training activities are organised within the firm, such expenditure may be allocated to the running of the training courses, to the remuneration of trainees, or to the purchase of equipment provided that such equipment is used exclusively for training purposes.

When training activities are organised outside the firm, pursuant to agreements concluded for one year or more, items of expenditure admissible as part of the employer's contribution under this Title shall be firstly, remuneration paid by the firm and secondly, training expenses paid by the training organisation in fulfilment of the said agreements including expenses relating to the purchase of equipment.

2. By contributing to the financing of training insurance funds set up under the provisions of Section 32 of this Act.

3. By making payments, up to a limit of 10 per cent of the amount of the contribution required from them for the current year, to bodies which are either approved on the national level by reason of the significance of their activities for the continuing vocational training of workers, or engaged in activities whose importance on the regional level has been recognised by the prefect of the region on a proposal by the competent regional committee for vocational training, social mobility and employment in accordance with the aims laid down in the first paragraph of Section 1 of this Act.

Section 15

Employers with at least 50 employees cannot be considered as having complied with the provisions of this Title until, having satisfied the obligation specified in Section 14, they produce evidence that the works committee has considered, during the year in relation to which the employer has fulfilled the said obligation, the problems of the firm relating to continuing vocational training, and that this took place before the making of general decisions relating to the implementation of this Act.

Employers shall be exempted from the need to provide such proof when they produce the record of non-compliance (procès-verbal de carence) referred to in Article 13-1 of the Ordinance of 22nd February, 1945, as amended by Act No. 66-427 of 18th June, 1966.

Section 16

I. When the proved expenditure by the employer under Section 14 is less than his contribution as determined by that Section, then the employer shall be required to make a payment to the Treasury equal to the difference between the two sums.

Where the employer does not produce the evidence required under Section 15, then the payment which he is required to make by the preceding paragraph shall be increased by 50 per cent. Such increase cannot be less than half the contribution due for the year under consideration.

The payment shall be made at the same time as the submission of the declaration referred to in Section 19.

The amount of this payment shall be fixed, and the sum recovered in the same way and subject to the same securities, guarantees and penalties as are applicable to turnover tax.

II. Claims shall be submitted, investigated and adjudicated in the same way as for turnover tax. Claims shall be notified to the department responsible for investigating the validity of expenditure made under Section 14 when the dispute concerns the amount of the contribution made by the employer.

Section 17

Employers who, in the course of any one year, incur expenditure greater than that required under Section 14 of this Act may carry forward the excess into the three following years.

Title VI

Financial assistance granted to trainees undergoing vocational training

Section 23

The State, employers, workers and bodies responsible for the provision of insurance benefits to unemployed workers shall contribute financially, in the manner appropriate to each category of training course defined in Section 10, towards the remuneration of trainees undergoing vocational training.

Under certain conditions as laid down by decree of the Conseil d'Etat, the trainee may receive a loan granted by the State or by approved bodies in receipt of State assistance.

Such loan may be added to any grants received by virtue of the provisions of this Title.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

At present there is no national law of educational leave of absence in Germany. Instead one finds a complex of collective agreements, state proposals and legislation recognising the right to educational leave of absence and a trio of national laws which deal with vocational training without recognising the right to educational leave of absence. This paper describes these different arrangements in Germany and discusses the three national laws in an attempt to clarify the situation there.

Before the national laws for vocational training

The tradition of training skilled manpower through the apprenticeship system has a long and important history in Germany. It is based on the mechanical training model of the master craftsman, and all of the attempts to get it codified legally (particularly since the middle of the 19th century) can be interpreted at their core as stages in the dispute between the divergent interests of the craft trades on the one hand and those of industry on the other hand so far as concerned vocational qualifications(1).

The repeated attempts by the unions since 1919 to achieve unified regulations for vocational training have all been unsuccessful, being pushed aside time after time by political decision-makers because of inopportune economic or political developments(2).

All these attempts to achieve a unified legal basis for initial vocational training were confronted with two problems in particular: the cultural autonomy of the Länder and the general conflict of

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1) "Kosten und Finanzierung der ausserschulischen beruflichen Bildung (Abschlussbericht)" Bundestag 7th Legislature, Drucksache (Report No. 7/1811) dated March 14th, 1974, p.9/10.

2) Lipsmeier, A. & Greiner, W.D.: Berufsbildungsgesetz (Vocational Training Act), Hearings 1967, Gewerkschaftliche Beiträge zu Fragen der beruflichen Bildung (Union Notes on Questions of Vocational Training), pamphlet No. 12, Cologne 1968 (Bundesverlag), p. 6.

interests in society as a whole. On the one hand, within the framework of their cultural autonomy, the Länder are responsible for training programmes and financing of vocational schools. On the other hand, the federal government is responsible for the complementary shop-training side of vocational training by an annex to the economic and labour law of 1943(1). This makes any co-ordination or unification of basic curricula difficult from the very beginning.

After the Second World War, rules for training in industry and commerce were developed by the Workshop on Shop Training (Arbeitsstelle für Betriebliche Berufsausbildung), an institution of the leading employers' association, and were officially recognised by the Federal Minister of Economics(2). Regulations for the Organisation and Management of the Apprenticeship System and the Apprentice's Examination (Fachliche Vorschriften zur Regelung des Lehrlingswesens und der Gesellenprüfung) within the framework of the Trade Regulations were provided by the German Assembly of Trade Guilds (Deutsche Handwerkskammertag) in co-operation with the Institute for Vocational Education (Institut für Berufserziehung) at the University of Cologne; these are also officially recognised by the federal government. Recognition by the Länder of the rules governing vocations was based on the legal concept of tradition, not on law in itself.

Even before 1969, however, there was a legal basis for individual advancement and assistance for vocational training. This was provided by the Gesetz über Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung (Job Location and Unemployment Insurance Act) passed on July 10th, 1927, and the federal agency responsible for implementing this law, the Federal Institute for Job Location and Unemployment Insurance (Bundesanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung) provided the necessary financial assistance to participants in vocational training programmes that were designed to increase their chances of upward occupational mobility. This took the form of a grant or a loan that was generally conditional on the individual having completed a vocational training programme and having had at least two years of practical experience in the relevant trade. The intended advanced training was supposed

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1) Cf. Art. 74, para. 11 and 12 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany dated May 23rd, 1949.

2) Cf. also on this point: Hegelheimer, A.: Berufsbildung in Deutschland. (Vocational Education in Germany), working pamphlet N° 885 published by the Industriegewerkschaft Metall (Metal Workers Union of Germany), Frankfurt 1972 (Europäische Verlagsanstalt). p. 26 f.

to contribute to "adapting (the employee) to rising job requirements and developments in the economy"(1).

In 1965 this assistance programme was expanded to cover "performance promotion", grants and loans being provided for training programmes to adapt individual capacities and levels of knowledge to changing job requirements. One of the target groups here was women who wanted to re-enter the labour market.

The fact that, after decades of controversy, three Acts of importance to labour market and educational policy were passed by the Bundestag in 1969 was primarily due to the increasingly acute economic situation and the particular balance of political forces to which it largely gave rise(2).

The economic developments that were significant in determining the character and content and moment of passage of these Acts were threefold:

- the end of the reconstruction period at the beginning of the sixties,
- the recession of 1966/67, and
- the so-called Ruhr-area crisis as a (regionalised) structural problem.

Periods of reconstruction are generally characterised by changes in qualifications for employment and in job structures that make economic growth possible without the expansion and/or re-structuring of the education system. In the Federal Republic the phase of reconstruction after the Second World War lasted roughly until 1961/62. The reasons for it having lasted so long are to be found in the large number of qualified workers and business management personnel available in the country and the influx of vocationally qualified refugees, particularly from the G.D.R.

The fact that the domestic supply of labour was practically exhausted by the end of the fifties can be seen in the rapidly rising number of job vacancies and, by 1960, a drop in the unemployment rate to 1.2 per cent. In order to prevent a manpower shortage, foreign labour was brought into the country at an increasing rate(3).

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1) Preliminary remarks on the "Richtlinien über die Vergabe von Beihilfen zur beruflichen Fortbildung der unselbständigen Mittelschichten (Individuelles Förderungsprogramm)" (Guidelines for Granting Aid for Advanced Vocational Training to Members of the non-independent Middle Class (Individual Aid Programme) dated December 18th, 1963, Bundesanzeiger (Federal Register) No. 239 dated December 24th, 1963.

2) It is at the very least necessary to mention that in 1968 the GDR issued its "Grundsätze für die Weiterentwicklung der Berufsausbildung als Bestandteil des einheitlichen sozialistischen Bildungssystems".

3) Sachverständigenrat zur Begutachtung der gesamtwirtschaftlichen Entwicklung (Experts' Council on the Development of the Economy as a whole): Stabiles Geld - stetiges Wachstum (Stable Money - Steady Growth), Annual Report 1964/65, Stuttgart und Mainz 1965, p. 55 ff. and p. 171, Table 60.

It is significant that shortly after this flow of qualified personnel ceased with the building of the Berlin wall in 1961, public opinion in the F.R.G. began to concern itself with the importance of the education system and educational spending(1).

The lack of an adequate pool of manpower was an important factor in inducing technological organisational developments principally directed towards labour saving(2).

The increase of capital intensity coincided with slower growth rates of production, a situation that was aggravated by increased foreign competition. Profits also decreased because the unions, having regard to the shortage of labour, were successful in pushing through their demands for substantial wage increases.

The economic crisis of 1966/67 can thus be characterised by rapidly increasing capital intensity and wages, sub-optimal utilisation of industrial capacity and a falling rate of profit for the economy as a whole. In this context the so-called Ruhr-area crisis gained a great deal of its drama from the collision of structural and cyclical problems. Coal mining, which determined the structure of the economy in North Rhine-Westphalia and the Saar, was particularly affected by the structural changes which had been taking place since 1950. Because of shifts in demand on the energy market and decelerated growth among important areas of energy consumption (particularly in the iron and steel industry), its contribution to net industrial production dropped from 10.7 per cent in 1950 to 4.8 per cent in 1964(3). During the same period the number of people engaged in this branch of industry fell from 10.8 per cent of the total employed to 5.6 per cent. During the recession roughly 360,000 jobs in North Rhine-Westphalia either disappeared or were not filled because of lack of orders. Finding jobs for these unemployed in other sectors of the economy with a minimum of friction was largely unsuccessful because they lacked the necessary qualifications for effective vocational mobility.

Genesis of the laws of 1969

The mounting efforts to achieve the passage of a vocational training Act from the early sixties onwards must be seen against the background of political and economic change to which we have just referred. Although the Bundestag, on a motion for a

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1) Picht, G. Die deutsche Bildungskatastrophe (The German Education Catastrophe), Olten und Freiburg 1964.

2) Also Baetge, M., Gerstenberger, F., Kern, H., Schumann, M. Stein, H.W., and Wienemann, E.: Produktion und Qualifikation. Schriften zur Berufsbildungsforschung, Bd. 14.

3) Cf. on the following: Experts' Council on the Development of the Economy as a Whole: Stabilization Without Stagnation (Annual Report 1965/66): Stuttgart and Mainz, 1966, p.131, Table 56.

parliamentary resolution put forward by the SPD party in the middle of 1962, asked the federal government to present a draft for a vocational training act by 1st February, 1963, the government took no action ostensibly because of the difficulty of the issues involved. The SPD then presented its own "Draft of an Act for Adapting the Labour Market to the Development of the Economy and Technology (Labour Market Adaptation Act)"(1). This was on 30th August, 1966. That this initiative was not definitively adjourned - as so often in the past - but provoked the dominant parties of the period, the CDU/CSU and the FDP, into presenting their own draft of an "Act for the Regulation of Vocational Training (Vocational Training Act)"(2) was not so much the result of any general interest in educational matters at that time(3) as an expression of a sudden awareness of educational policy problems intensified by an unwelcome change in the general economic situation.

Both the unfavourable development of the economy and the lively public discussion of the Vocational Training Act caused the federal government, in answer to a resolution passed in the Bundestag in 1966, to prepare a draft for a complete revision of the Job Location and Unemployment Insurance Act in 1967. As we have seen, it was obvious that the frictional losses sustained on the labour market during the recession of 1966/67 were due to the lack of vocational mobility of the labour force; hence this reformulation of State employment and vocational policies' integrated efforts to improve the societal, vocational and intellectual mobility of the working people.

The drafts of these two laws were processed in much the same manner. After plenary discussions of the draft by the Bundestag, the bills were submitted to the Labour Committee for further debate and formulation. This Committee held public hearings at which a number of experts presented evidence.

During the debates on the CDU/CSU-FDP draft of a Vocational Training Act and on the SPD draft of a Labour Market Adaptation Act in the respective committees of the Bundestag, it became clear that the two areas should be integrated. Both the substantive solution to initial vocational training on the one hand and on-going vocational training on the other hand, together with the financial

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1) Bundestag, 5th legislature, Drucksache (Bundestag Notes) 5/887.

2) Bundestag, 5th legislature, (Bundestag Notes) 5/1007.

3) The miserable state of public awareness of the vocational education situation up to the mid-sixties is illustrated by a report issued in 1964 by the Deutscher Ausschuss für das Erziehungs- und Bildungswesen (German Committee for the Education and Training System) dealing with vocational schools and training: it consists of 80 pages of description of the education system and no more than 20 recommendations: Cf. also Lisop I.: Überwindung der Monokratie? (On overcoming the Monocracy?) in: Betrifft Erziehung (Concerning Education) Vol. 7(1974), No. 7, pp. 21-24 and in particular p.22

provision for each of them, obviously needed to be co-ordinated. At the same time it was emphasized by the SPD in particular that training assistance would have to be viewed in a much more comprehensive sense and expanded well beyond mere on-the-job instruction. Thus, the SPD announced its intention to introduce a bill that would include such training projects as would not find a place in the Vocational Training Act, the Labour Promotion Act and student aid programmes.

In reality all three parties in the Bundestag introduced drafts of an Education Promotion and Assistance Act which were discussed(1) during their first reading in the Bundestag on December 6th, 1960 and subsequently submitted to the Committee for Family and Youth for further debate and formulation(2).

The laws were finally passed by the Bundestag on the following dates:

The Vocational Training Act - 10th July, 1969
The Labour Market Promotion Act - 20th June, 1969
The Individual Education Assistance Act - 19th September, 1969

II. THE NATIONAL LAWS AND OTHER REGULATIONS

Implementation

As we have seen, the preoccupation in the late 1960s in Germany was with vocational training as an aspect of national manpower policy rather than a matter for educational leave of absence as an individual right. Nevertheless, during the same time the unions were pressing a strong demand for the guaranteed right to educational leave and, as we shall see later, they were not unsuccessful. The three Acts of 1969, however, did not treat the question of educational leave of absence at all.

The Vocational Training Act, in the version passed by the Bundestag in 1969, was aimed at the political goal of creating a unified national legal framework in which public responsibility for vocational training and education would be formally recognised.

The regulative potential of the Act is diminished, however, by its limited scope. It applies only to extra-curricular plant or shop vocational training and focuses basically on initial vocational training and education. For the trades, a number of the special regulations retaining aspects of the traditional Trade Regulations are still in effect, and as a rule tend to lag behind the reformed

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1) Bundestag, 5th Legislature, (Bundestag Notes) 5/2416 (FUP draft proposal), (Bundestag Notes) 5/3090 (SPD draft proposal) and (Bundestag Notes) 5/3354 (CDU/CSU draft proposal).

2) Cf. also on the following: Schriftlicher Bericht des Ausschusses für Familien- und Jugendfragen (Written Report of the Committee on Family and Youth Questions), Bundestag, (Bundestag Notes) V/4377.

practices of the Vocational Training Act. This is all the more unfortunate since two thirds of all industrial training programmes are organised by the trade guilds.

Advanced vocational training and re-schooling were included in the legislation in the form of elective provisions only that gave the responsible authorities the freedom to provide for examinations and the like if they so desired.

It is significant that the Vocational Training Act contained no provision for financing or funding. The fact that both the quantitative and qualitative expansion of the vocational training system is dependent on the willingness of factories and businesses to invest in this sector is the basic dilemma of the reform of vocational education in the Federal Republic of Germany.

The declared social and economic policy goals of the Labour Market Promotion Act are the achievement and maintenance of a high level of employment and an improvement in the structure of employment. The available measures provided by the Act fall into three broad categories - the first being the most pertinent to our analysis: (i) the promotion of vocational education, (ii) initiatives designed to save or create jobs, and (iii) assistance for it and aid to the unemployed. The instruments provided for these purposes include counselling (vocational counselling and job location), financial aid, and labour market and vocational research.

The Act, therefore, provides for aid to individuals undertaking vocational training, but this cannot be considered as educational leave of absence because the trainee must normally finish or interrupt his working contract in order to participate. Individual aid for vocational training is permitted by the Labour Market Promotion Act for programmes involving whole day schooling, for training programmes undertaken in parallel with regular work (berufsbegleitender Unterricht), and for correspondence courses. The granting of such aid is subject to the qualifications of the applicant and to the stipulations that the course is relevant in terms of labour market policy and corresponds with his own vocational aptitudes and choice.

In addition, grants or loans are available for participation in appropriate external vocational courses and/or for initial vocational training in accordance with the financial need of the applicant.

Individual aid for advanced vocational training includes both advanced vocational training programmes and vocational re-schooling. These are specifically designed to:

- ensure and improve vocational mobility,
- make vocational advancement possible,
- avoid or overcome gaps in the supply of qualified personnel,

- prevent or eliminate unemployment as well as qualitative and quantitative under-employment.

Basically everyone compelled to pay unemployment insurance dues is entitled to individual aid for vocational training if specific criteria are met. The first of these mainly involve matters of previous education and the length of time that unemployment insurance dues have been paid, others are concerned with the quality of the training programme and its acceptability in terms of current labour market policy.

Aid provided within the individual assistance programme includes allowances for subsistence, tuition, training materials, work clothing, travel, food and cost of living. The assistance is given in the form of grants. The living allowance is based on the applicant's income prior to his entering the programme and on his marital status. Originally, all tuition fees were paid by the institute, and the allowances for all other services were set at fixed rates.

People who do not meet the requirements for individual aid may still be granted loans for advanced vocational training and/or reschooling if this accords with the needs of the labour market.

The Individual Education Assistance Act was designed specifically to provide assistance for educational programmes at the second level (Sekundarbereich II) of secondary education. It gave a legal right to individual assistance for educational programmes appropriate to the aptitude, qualifications and performance of the applicant provided he did in fact need the money. These grants provided for attendance at: general education secondary schools as well as trade schools (Fachoberschulen) beginning with the 10th grade (later changed to the 11th grade); vocational preparation schools (Berufsaufbauschulen), secondary night schools (Abendrealschulen), college-preparatory secondary night schools (Abendgymnasium and Abendkolleg), vocational schools (Berufsfachschule and Fachschule). Grants for training programmes providing an initial qualification for vocation covered the whole course; their effective duration for other educational tracks, however, varied from one to another. The rates were also different for the various educational programmes, being designed to cover their actual cost.

In order to create a uniform basis of aid for training at secondary school, second level and at university level, the Individual Education Assistance Act (Ausbildungsförderungsgesetz) was combined in 1971 with the so-called Honnefer Modell to form the Federal Educational Assistance Act (Bundesausbildungsförderungsgesetz). In accordance with this, qualification for aid depends upon the level of family income.

Aid for vocational training under the Labour Market Promotion Act (see above) represented a step ahead in that it provided for the subsistence of the wage-earner during his participation in vocational training; yet the programmes still had no place for non-vocational education and the Act dispensed no right to leave of absence for educational or training purposes.

The unions raised a strong demand for the guaranteed right to "educational leave" during the latter part of the sixties. Indeed, by 1973 educational leave had been agreed upon in a total of 198 union contract regions involving some 2.2 million employees; only a fraction of them, however, provided for paid leave(1). The contracts also tend to be quite restrictive as to the length of leave and to the types of programme for which leave will be approved. For example, city, State, and federal officials and employees have a right to up to six working days educational leave for scientific meetings, vocational and political training, educational programmes and the study of foreign languages.

The intention of the SPD party in the Bundestag to include the right to educational leave for all the wage-earners in the Labour Market Promotion Act was defeated by the opposition majority in the Labour Committee. The only remaining solution was to recommend to the unions and to business and industrial organisations that they include and "specifically endorse" educational leave in their contracts.

When the German Education Council (Deutscher Bildungsrat)(2), the Federal and State Commission for Educational Planning (Bund-Länder-Kommission für Bildungsplanung),(3) and the federal government, in its report on educational policies(4) came out in favour of educational leave, it was generally felt that the federal legislature would take the initiative in this matter. In 1971/72, in the Federal Ministry of Labour, the estimated costs of paid educational leave were tentatively calculated according to varying rates of participation and for different lengths of leave. This period of activity was followed, however, by a remarkable silence in that quarter. It may indeed be that the federal government was shocked by the enormous costs of such a programme (although there

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1) Cf. Auswertung des Tarifregisters durch das Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftliche Institut der Gewerkschaften 1974. (Evaluation of the Union Contract Scale by the Scientific Institute of Unions in 1974).

2) Cf. German Education Council (Ed.): Materialien zum Vorentwurf einer Empfehlung das Deutschen Bildungsrats zum Bildungsurlaub, Drucksache 370/71 (Materials for the Preliminary Draft of a Recommendation by the German Education Council on Educational Leave. Printed Notes 370/71), Frankfurt, 1971.

3) Federal-State-Commission for Educational Planning: Zwischenbericht über den Bildungs-Gesamtplan und ein Bildungsbudget, Bd I (Intermediary Report on the General Education Plan and An Education Budget, Vol. I), Bonn, 1971.

4) Federal government: Bericht zur Bildungspolitik (Report on Educational Policy) (Bundestag Notes) V 925, Bonn, 1971.

is disagreement as to how high these costs would really be) - nonetheless management representatives and employers launched a full attack against the idea pointing to the costs to business and industry it would entail. Ultimately, it became evident also to the unions that they neither possessed the facilities nor the personnel capable of dealing with and providing for educational leave for everyone. Berlin was the only Land to adopt legislation granting educational leave to young workers. This took place in 1970 after the Berlin Vocational Education Act (Berliner Berufsbildungsgesetz) had been superseded by the Vocational Training Act (Berufsbildungsgesetz) in 1969. In 1973, a number of Länder presented drafts of legislative solutions to the problem. Two of these have already been enacted, others should pass into law in the near future (see Annex 1 attached).

Financing educational leave of absence

Under the present Educational Leave Acts and the Legislative Proposals in the Länder of the Federal Republic of Germany, the preferred method of maintaining wages during periods of educational leave is for the employer to continue to pay them. The CDU draft proposals in both Bremen and Hesse include an interesting additional proposition relating to small and/or medium sized industrial plant. In Bremen they propose that a hardship fund be established that would reimburse 50 per cent of the leave pay spent by such small and medium sized businesses. In Hesse they suggest a community pool for assisting small companies with less than 20 employees.

The Vocational Training Act includes no financial provisions, whereas the Educational Promotion and Assistance Act is financed out of public funds. The Labour Market Promotion Act, however, is financed differently. The Federal Administration of Labour (Bundesanstalt für Arbeit - B.A.) is the central labour market agency in the F.R.G. The B.A. is a public corporation acting independently of the Federal Government and its governing board is composed of equal numbers of representatives of the employers, worker associations and public (i.e. federal, state and municipal) authorities. The B.A. is financed by (equal) contributions from employers on the one hand and employees on the other. Under the present law the contribution each has to make is limited to 1.0 per cent of the fixed monthly earnings of the employees.

Two areas of difficulty

Two of the criticisms levelled against the Labour Market Promotion Act deserve special mention. Firstly, to the extent that the poorly qualified are identical with those receiving low wages, they are also at a disadvantage when they attend full-time training programmes. Because the subsistence allowance granted under the Labour Market Promotion Act is based on the income last earned, this tends to mean that real subsistence is not provided for the lowest income groups. This is one of the reasons why auxiliary measures are being introduced in Bavaria and North-Rhine-Westphalia so that the difference between the amount of aid granted by the Labour Market Promotion Act and the net wages in the skilled vocation for which the training will be made up to the participants out of Land funds. Secondly, in 1972, in an attempt to control the skyrocketing costs of tuition, the original system of complete reimbursement of fees was replaced by the introduction of maximum rates. However, it became clear that the hourly rate chosen - 1.25 DM. per instruction hour and 1.75 DM. for machine-oriented course made it necessary for the participant to pay for part of the tuition out of his or her own pocket. This obviously poses an additional problem for those at the lower income levels and may well act as disincentive to participation in the programmes.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

The training offered

As we have seen, all the national laws that bear upon ELA confine themselves to vocational education and training. The laws and proposals in the Länder are broader in scope. All of these include leave of absence for political education and in the law in Lower Saxony, the CDU proposals in Bremen and the SPD proposals in Saarland, leave of absence for general education has also been included.

Participation

No statistics are available on the rates of participation in the educational leave of absence programmes offered in the Länder. This is hardly surprising because only the Berlin programme (for workers under 21 years) has been running for more than a year. However, the available statistics on the Labour Promotion Act may give some idea of the potential public for educational leave of absence were it to be introduced. The participation rates for 1970-1973(1) were as follows:

	Male	Female	Total
1970	129,546	40,620	170,166
1971	225,877	62,513	288,390
1972	106,447	53,838	160,285
1973	176,925	50,017	226,942

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1) Source: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit: Förderung der beruflichen Bildung, Ergebnisse von Sonderauszählungen, Nürnberg, 1974.

An analysis of the socio-economic characteristics of the persons granted aid and assistance in this programme shows that:

- The age group under 35 years of age was over-represented among the total group of those attending vocational training programmes; among the new male participants in the programme in 1970 and 1971 more than 75 per cent belonged to this age group, among female participants it amounted to 65 per cent and was rising.
- The number of women participating in the programme is astonishingly low. The sex-specific difference is particularly significant - although the trend is beginning to reverse itself - in advanced vocational training programmes.
- If we break down the participants according to previous general education and vocational training, we find that the greatest number were graduates of secondary school first level (Volksschulabgänger) with completed plant vocational training, while there were significant differences between male and female participants as well as between those taking the advanced vocational training courses and those participating in re-schooling. Grade-school graduates without (or without completed) vocational training are relatively few among those participating in advanced training programmes; by contrast, they form the largest group among those participating in re-schooling programmes. On the whole, the percentage of participants with completed apprenticeship training rose during the period from 1970 to 1972 from 71.6 per cent to 78.0 per cent.
- A breakdown of participants in the advanced vocational programme according to their job levels is available for male participants only. A comparison of the quotas with the percentages of the given job category's percentage of the male labour force as a whole indicates that office (white collar) employees are over-represented, particularly upper level office employees and management personnel. Workers are represented in relative correspondence to their percentages of the total labour force, but a further breakdown of this group indicates that unskilled and semiskilled workers participated in the programme relatively seldom, whereas there were high participation rates for skilled workers, master bricklayers, and the like.

The cost of educational leave of absence

Again, no figures are available for the laws in operation in the Länder and we must use expenditure under the Labour Market Promotion Act as a possible guide to the sums that would be involved in implementing educational leave of absence regulations on a national basis. The total outlay for training by the Federal Administration of Labour (B.A.) rose from 980.5 million DM. in fiscal year 1970 to 2,265.9 million DM. in 1972. As mentioned above, in 1971/72 the Federal Ministry of Labour estimated the costs of paid educational leave according to varying rates of participation and for different lengths of leave. This period of activity was followed by silence and it has been suggested that the federal government were shocked by the enormous cost of the programme as proposed.

IV. THE FUTURE

As we have seen, the only regulations specifically concerned with educational leave of absence are those included in collective agreements or in Länder legislation. It is felt that labour contract provisions for educational leave of absence have significant disadvantages in comparison with a legislative solution. Among the reasons given are that, because of the large number of union contract regions, the chances of achieving unified agreements are very slight and the introduction of educational leave in regions with acute or potentially acute structural problems is highly improbable. The Länder laws and proposals appear more promising. However, the new rights secured by law are not very broad in scope, either with respect to the amount of leave provided for, or the kind of people entitled to participate in the programmes. The fact that, despite all the limitations, numerous bottlenecks and problems would arise if all of the potential participants were to take full advantage of their rights in the first year of the programme leads to the suspicion that election tactics played a certain role in the passage of this legislation. It remains to be seen whether or to what extent it will lead to an accelerated expansion of educational opportunities.

Annex

OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN THE LANDER

State of the Federal Republic	Principle	Persons Entitled to Leave	Length of Leave	Leave Payment
Berlin	Educational Leave Act of July 16, 1970. Leave for vocational and political education.	All workers and trainees until completion of their 21st birthday	Unlimited unpaid leave; maximum of 10 days paid leave annually.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.
Hamburg	Hamburg's Education Leave Act of January 21, 1974. Leave for political education and advanced vocational training.	All workers and trainees. School and university teachers, social work teachers only during school/university/institution vacation.	10 working days every 2 years, if 6-day working week then a total of 12 days during same period.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.
Lower Saxony	Lower Saxony Act on Educational Leave for Workers of May 10, 1974. Right to leave for political vocational and general education courses.	All workers and trainees except for state officials and judges. No. of total educ. vac. days on employer must grant equal total no. of employees as of April 15 of each given year times 1.5.(1)	10 working days per annum, 12 per annum for 6-day work week.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.
Hesse	Educational Leave Act of June 19, 1974. Leave for vocational and political education.	All workers until the age of 25.	5 working days per annum.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.

1) See note on page 164.

State of the Federal Republic	Principle	Persons Entitled to Leave	Length of Leave	**Leave Payment**
Baden-Württemberg	SPD-Party proposal of a law for educational leave from May 22, 1973. Would include leave for political education only.	All workers and persons in training until completion of 25th birthday.	10 working days per annum, 12 per annum for 6-day work week.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.
Bremen	SPD draft of an educational leave Act from January 29, 1974. Would include leave for political and vocational education leave.	All workers and employees. Unemployed would receive grants for costs incurred in programmes.	10 working days per annum every 2 years, 12 days for 6-day work week.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from the employer.
	CDU-party proposal for education leave Act from February 12, 1974. Leave for vocational, political and general education and advanced training.	All workers incl. state officials, persons in training, mothers and non-employed persons under care.	10 working days per annum, 12 days for 6-day working week.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from employer. A hardship fund would reimburse 50% of paid out leave pay for small and medium-sized plants.
Saarland	SPD draft of education leave Act for young workers from May 10, 1974. For political, general and vocational education.	All workers and persons in training until completion of 25th birthday.	12 working days per annum.	Full pay during pay-eligible leave from employer.

State of the Federal Republic	Principle	Persons Entitled to Leave	Length of Leave	Leave Payment
Schleswig-Holstein	SPD-party proposal of a law for education leave from October 25, 1974. Leave for vocational and political education.		2 weeks in two years.	

1) If all leave benefits are not exhausted (where total wages exceed 250,000.00 DM.) a prorated fee of 0.6% of total wages is to be paid into a fund at the state tax office (Finanzamt). Fee reduced in ratio to proportion of total leave eligibility to actual leave (total length) granted. Fund to be used for improving educational facilities and opportunities in general.

Source: Nahrendorf, P.: "Der Bildungsurlaub ist der Wahlschlager der Länder" (Education Leave is a Hit in the State Election Campaigns) in: Handelsblatt, June 7-8, 1974.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN ITALY

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The "worker student"

A large number of initiatives applicable to workers anxious to acquire a diploma in order to increase their individual mobility have existed in Italy since the 1950s but for a long time no particular regulation organised these training activities, which were given outside working hours and which corresponded, in fact, to an extension of traditional teaching methods undertaken by private institutions.

It was only in the 1960s that this became a national problem. The importance of the number concerned (about one million in 1960), and the creation (in 1962 and 1963) of two national associations to regroup them, explains the new attention for which it called. It was then that the interest of the unions started to manifest itself, not always in a direct manner, and the worker-student movement, rooted in the north of the country, increased its pressure on the public authorities, in particular through public protest demonstrations.

It did not take long for the first results to appear and for arrangements to be made in some company agreements facilitating attendance at evening courses for worker-students. However, it was not until the renewal of the collective agreements in 1966 that the problem of worker-students was included in the package of claims by certain categories of worker (engineering, textiles, construction, chemicals). These were principally concerned with paid leave during examinations and the arrangement of schedules and overtime hours. Sometimes in a few large companies, the agreements included reimbursement for the purchasing of books and advantages after having passed examinations.

Nevertheless, many decisions remained at the discretion of the employer and there were numerous limiting conditions, for example that priority should be given to service necessities; that good results and regular attendance at the courses were a necessity while the employer was free to refuse recognition of the qualifications gained... All these limitations conferred on the arrangements the character of a concession made by the employer rather than the recognition of a right.

1969 was the year in which the fight of the Worker-Students culminated; an extremely tense period that lasted all year long. The fight had had advance support from the student bodies the year before in their sensitizing public opinion and political and union forces to the social, economic and cultural aspects of education and to the relationships school/working life and school/labour market.

The taking up of the worker-students' claims by the unions led to the addition of the following Article 10 in the Law No. 300 of 20th May, 1970 known under the name of "Statute of the Right of the Worker"(1):

> Worker-students enrolled or attending courses in primary, secondary or technical schools, approved or legally recognised, or with the ability to award legal diplomas, have the right to working hours which allow them to follow their courses and to prepare for their examinations. They are not required to fulfill supplementary working hours and cannot be compelled to work during the periods of weekly rest.
>
> Worker-students, including those at university level, who have to sit an examination have the right to benefit from daily paid leave.
>
> The employer will have the right to insist upon the production of certificates (of attendance) necessary to the exercising of the rights laid down in paragraphs 1 and 2.

It should be mentioned that the law, although dealing with situations not all of which are listed, is formulated (and this without doubt is not fortuitous) in general terms which avoid entering into the details of the immediately applicable arrangements. It implicitly refers the responsibility for making arrangements to the collective agreements relevant to the different categories of workers, negotiated at national level or within a company.

From "Worker-students" to the "Right to Study for Workers"

The partial solution brought to the problem of Worker-Students by the collective agreements of 1969 - 1970 and by Law No. 300 of May 1970 (even if it left a number of questions in the air) opened the way to some thought and action by the parties concerned in the matter of workers' training.

The union thesis was that the solution of the real problem did not lie with the worker-students because:

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1) "Statute dei diritti dei laboratori".

- they were seeking individually a diploma that they had not been able to obtain previously, and
- the non-possession of these diplomas was the result of socio-cultural inequalities from which the young suffered and which the schools did not redress.

If one really wanted to bring about a qualitative change, the solution was to institute a new relationship between the culture and the school that would not only create conditions more favourable to the cultural development of workers but, above all, would favour a transformation and a renewal of the objectives and cultural content of the educational institutions and of their programmes. This perspective, which is within the framework of a re-evaluation of the present structures of training and culture, introduced a new dimension into union strategy that provoked a great deal of debate, most of it internal to the unions themselves. Other factors have aggravated the situation from the workers' point of view: the prolongation of the compulsory school period, the decreasing value of diplomas, technological progress, and the increasing demand for participation in social life. Meanwhile some of the more general objectives of union strategy began to exert pressure - such as the need for concrete definitions for new jobs, improvement in working conditions, and the acquisition of the right of workers' control over the processes and the ends of production.

In order to cope with these problems properly, the trade unions maintained the necessity of raising the cultural level of the working class in its entirety and transforming the structures of education to guarantee the training of a new type of worker and citizen. This demand for change does not concern "the school of workers" as it is understood at present (in this sense it is discriminatory and should be eliminated); it applies to the whole range of educational institutions. In such a framework, the workers' claims for their "right to study" should be situated in relation to the more general initiatives to reform the school and transform society. Thus, it preaches solutions directly oriented towards recurrent education.

At the level of joint discussions, at least when they began, this claim was pushed aside by the employers' representatives, who felt that it could not be the subject of any basic agreement. They were apprehensive of the cost it would entail and preferred to keep to the worker/student formula which had already been tried out and found to be practicable within the companies. Moreover, the worker-student "costs" little, and his objectives being his social mobility, the company's liberty in personnel policies was safeguarded.

In May 1973, at the end of the laborious discussions, in which the State was not represented, the collective agreements of the engineering industry were signed. These laid down, inter alia, that:

> all workers who, with the objective of increasing their own culture, even in relation with the activity of the enterprise, desire to undertake studies within institutions, either public or recognised by the State, have the right ... to paid leave, up to the number of hours allocated to each employee, spaced over a period of three years.

II. THE BIPARTITE AGREEMENTS CONCERNING THE "RIGHT TO STUDY"

The agreement of the engineering industry set a precedent that was to serve as a model for numerous other collective agreements. Although they may differ one from another on certain points of detail, one can restrict one's analysis to the original one because it constitutes, on the one hand, a good résumé of the existing situation and, on the other, gives a preview of what the system may become as a result of the power of the unions who were co-signatories of the agreement.

The principle behind this agreement is assigning to the total personnel in a company an "amount of hours", calculated globally as a function of the number of workers over a period of three years:

if H is the amount of hours
N the number of workers
$H = 10 \times 3 \times N$.

Under the terms of the agreement, the calculation and this assigning of hours can be carried out at the workshop level.

Moreover, in this collective framework, the agreement organises the individual right to leave by according a maximum credit of 150 hours for a period of three years, which can also be used in the same year, on condition that "the training followed had a length of at least double that of the leave requested".

Conditions of Eligibility

There are no conditions restricting eligibility for educational leave. The agreement is nevertheless applied in the following manner:

> The number of workers permitted to take training simultaneously: the text lays down that "there may not be more than two per cent of the total number of workers absent simultaneously due to training". It is, moreover, further specified that when this general criterion is not sufficient to assure the normal functioning of a company, special agreements with the trade union representatives must be sought in order to find a solution.

> Presentation of the request. In order to exercise his right to study, the worker must present a written demand to his employer, normally three months before the chosen date. Specific regulations in this matter are left to individual company's agreements, and it does not seem that this notice of three months has ever been considered as obligatory.
>
> Priority rules of eligibility. In the text of the law, indirect reference is made to some criteria that may be used to choose the candidates for training in cases where they are too many or where the number of hours demanded for one year exceeds one third of the total hourly amount determined for the three-year period. In this connection, age, seniority, and the nature of the training desired come into consideration. However, solutions to this type of problem must be found through bipartite negotiation within the company.

The criteria cited here are given only as examples. Experience of the first year of application of the law shows that the solution of difficulties lies in the hands of the workers' unions. The employers have preferred, up to now, to stay officially outside the debate on how the right to study shall be applied. This reinforces the flexible character of the arrangements that allow various strategies to be employed:

> Control and remuneration. The company has the right of control over the actual use of paid leave and it exercises this through the certificates of enrolment and attendance that the workers must provide when requested by the management.

The remuneration rule is linked to actual presence at the courses. Payment is made in the form of monthly instalments proportional to the number of hours of leave used. A statement of the balance owing is kept and it cannot be paid until proof is furnished that all the courses have been completed.

The two existing institutions, that of the "worker-student" and that of "the right to study", are not in opposition to each other and the latter does not replace the former. This emerges very clearly in the collective agreements for the engineering industry which, in the article concerning facilities at the disposal of the worker-student, lays down that: "these authorisations do not affect the amount of hours put at the disposal of the worker under the agreement concerning the right to study".

Finance

Within the system of "right to study", costs are apportioned in the following way:

a) the employer provides the cost of the worker's pay while on leave;
b) the State provides for the cost of the training activities;
c) the worker provides for the indirect costs, such as transport, meals, etc., except when more favourable arrangements exist.

In addition to this, the regions also have a place in the financial system. Their intervention takes the form either of purchasing teaching materials or subsidies to institutions providing the training.

One of the difficulties in the functioning of the system is the limited capacity of the State (in this case the Ministry of Public Instruction) to provide training for adults. We have seen that, in effect, the "right to study" can only be exercised in areas of instruction given by public institutions or those recognised by the State.

Following long discussions between the unions and the Minister for Public Instruction, a temporary solution has been reached which allows a number of courses to be organised on the basis of demands received at the various local levels of the Ministry from the local branches of the trade unions. Following this agreement, 932 courses were organised in 1974.

These courses have been organised in public schools and rules have been established that prescribe the hours during which the workers may attend (afternoons and evenings). The average duration of these courses has been 350 to 400 hours (150 of which are the responsibility of the employers, 200-250 that of the worker). An effort has been made to satisfy the demands of the participants while maintaining a length of course that is significant in terms of training.

This timetable, reduced in relation to the traditional hours of public schools, posed serious problems for assuring the remuneration of the training personnel. These have been solved by forming teams of teachers (four in each) who spread their service over four different classes simultaneously. This means that the training has to be arranged in places where potential trainees are sufficiently numerous to justify a number of classes equal to, or a multiple of, four.

Seminars at university level, which vary in duration from 15 to 220 hours, have posed no particular problems. They have been carried out in an informal manner made possible by the relative autonomy enjoyed by university professors in organising their personal pedagogic programmes.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

The training offered

This depends to some extent on the way in which the principle of right to study is interpreted. The text of the engineering industry's agreement states the intention for workers to improve their own "culture" which may be in relation to the activities of their own companies. This last sentence is much discussed. The unions consider that it implied an offered possibility within a vocational course, whereas the employers feel that "improvement of the workers' culture" should apply only to those aspects that will be of advantage to the company.

Nevertheless, despite all the differences, it appears that the company managements have left it to the unions to organise the exercise of "the right to study". Thus, apart from the general objectives, admitted by all, of giving the worker the opportunity to improve his cultural level, the action of the union up to now is inspired by the following principles:

- definition of a minimum level of knowledge, common to all workers, by reference to the level at the end of compulsory schooling,
- cultural uniformity of the working class at an increasingly higher level,
- transformation of the school system into a system responding to the needs of workers in their entirety,
- an increase in the capacity of comprehension and of control by the workers of the processes of production and of their ends,
- definition of a new conception of working life founded on a vast entirety of knowledge such that a specific task would entail the mobilisation, at a given time, of only one particular branch of knowledge out of a larger cognitive framework,
- the transformation of the present organisation of work in order to insure the disappearance of its "parcelising" and alienating aspects,
- to bring together, through better liaison between education and work, the union movements of workers with those of students in their fights for claims.

One sees in the evidence that these objectives have a strong ideological "charge". They inspire the union strategy and they allow the evaluation of the present position of the employee's organisation on the implementation of educational leave. For the year 1974, which is the first year of this social acquisition, the unions' choices have been oriented towards the compulsory school (leading, after a training of 300 to 400 hours according to the case, to a diploma from lower secondary school) and towards the organisation of training seminars at university level.

On the pedagogic side the orientation is towards active methods of teaching in which there is a large content of group work and directed research based on examples of workers' experiences. Through training activities, these workers enlarge their experiences, relating them to other aspects of reality and learning how to systemize them.

In this spirit, the courses have been structured as "case studies", even at the level of lower secondary school, which in treating concrete problems allow access, by way of analyses, to the basic disciplines (mathematics, scientific observation, geography, civic learning, history, Italian language, foreign languages) and thus give rise to further courses.

The model content type of the case studies for the year in progress is:

- the factory,
- the town and the country,
- transport,
- information and culture,
- the worker and the State,
- the organisation of work.

The teachers are, of course, confronted with a new reality in the presence of adults in their schools. These adults demand exact services and new relationships with the teacher which call for different practices as soon as the programme is defined. On the basis of this new reality, a redefinition of the role of the teacher is taking place, with characteristics that are still uncertain. It points towards the image of the professor descending from his chair and becoming an animator or organiser of training, a cultural producer who discusses and negotiates the methods and the content of the training.

Participation of the workers

The application of the texts of the bipartite agreements is too recent for a significant estimate of participation yet to be made. About 20,000 workers will have benefited from "the right to study" in 1974. Taking into account the multiple collective agreements, the signing of which has followed the collective agreements in the engineering industry, the number of workers covered by this right is about 4,800,000, that is to say that the rate of participation is very weak, but the social problematique adopted constitutes a powerful factor for dynamism. Already for the engineering industry, around 7 per cent of the tri-annual credit hours has been used and 10 billion lira spent in 1974.

As a standing rule, finance from the private companies can be estimated for the engineering industry at about 105 billion lira for three years to which one must add about 150 billion lira for running costs which is a government expense(1). In total, per year the cost of this system would rise to about 80-85 billion lira, the budget for national education being 4000 billion lira.

IV. THE FUTURE

Judging by the objectives round which the unions are entrenched, the chances of the introduction of real recurrent education in Italy are very good. The socio-political characteristics of the country are sufficiently unusual for the trade unions' view to have a good chance of succeeding. All the more because, according to the employers' leaders themselves, "the amount of hours could be oriented in favour of the training of the worker not only from the strict vocational point of view but also towards the enrichment of the vocation by cultural and civic values, a vocation which constitutes a determining element of the personality of the worker. This training should not be founded only on the acquisition of the modern techniques of the vocation but also on intellectual knowledge. It should permit the understanding of the processes of production in technical terms but also in economic, organisational and social terms".

Thus, on the basis of these considerations, the unions have given themselves short or middle term objectives that include:

- the extension of the possibility to use the right to study mainly at the level of the higher secondary school,
- the improvement of pedagogic activities (content and methods),
- the extension of the right to study to all categories of workers,
- the advent of a real system of recurrent education, responding to the needs of the workers and integrating all opportunities for the worker.

In particular, it will be very important to see in detail how the working of the educational system and the behaviour of the teachers will be modified by all this new activity.

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1) The participation of the regions would also have to be added. This varies considerably and its overall scale is very difficult to estimate but it is likely to amount to between 5 per cent and 10 per cent of the State participation.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN THE NETHERLANDS

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Evolution

Although no overall or national scheme of educational leave of absence exists in the Netherlands at present, interest in the subject has been growing. In 1968 during a conference on adult education and industry, the need for an educational tax on employers was discussed(1). A report on the function and future of adult education published in 1970 drew attention to educational leave of absence(2) and the Minister of Culture, Recreation and Social Welfare directed the advisory committee on adult education(3) which she established in 1970 to include the subject in their long-term considerations. In 1973, educational leave of absence was discussed at the conference of the Committee for Increasing Productivity of the Social-Economic Council(4).

This year, interest in educational leave of absence has strongly increased, partly due to the discussions at the International Labour Organisation. The representatives of the different partners from the Netherlands (employees, employers and government) voted in favour of both the Convention and the Recommendation presented at the 59th session of the International Labour Conference in June 1974 although both the government and the employers' representatives had initial reservations on the appropriateness of a Convention. Despite this, however, "The Employer" - the organ of the Dutch Christian Employers' Organisation (N.C.W.) - has expressed the expectation that the Netherlands will undoubtedly ratify the Convention, although this would be because the Netherlands would view its appearance in a list of non-signatories as a moral sanction.

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1) Vormingswerk en Beroepsleven, Konferentie Tjdschrift Volksopvoeding, 19 November 1968.

2) Functie en toekomst van het vormings-en ontwikkelingswerk met volwassenen, Groningen, 1970, p. 119 en 133.

3) Toespraak van de minister van Cultuur, Recreatie en Maatschappelijk Werk t.g.v. de installatie van de Commissie Vormings-en Ontwikkelingswerk voor Volwassenen op 25 Nov. '70.

4) Permanente opleiding en vorming van volwassenen in het Gedrijfsleven, Konferentie Commissie Opvoering Produktiviteit van de S.E.R. 19th April 1973.

Discussion of I.L.O. Texts

So far the Employers Federations have been the only group to respond publicly to the I.L.O.'s Recommendation and Convention. The employers have reacted favourably to these and they are of the opinion that the texts offer adequate possibilities for the application of the principle of educational leave. In their opinion, priorities will have to be established and the employers expect to play an important role in the setting of these. Although the labour movement and the government have not yet publicly reacted to the I.L.O. texts and discussions between the partners on this subject have not yet started, there appears to be no difference of opinion between the partners in the Netherlands on the desirability of educational leave. Nevertheless, the feeling has become clear that educational leave should be weighed against other social priorities in the sphere of work, e.g. better pensions.

II. PRESENT ARRANGEMENTS AND THEIR FINANCING

Although no integrated system of educational leave of absence exists in the Netherlands, there are nevertheless some scattered examples. In general, instances of educational leave of absence programmes that do exist are either the result of national laws covering specific groups of workers (e.g. those belonging to Works' Councils or young workers) or are the result of collective agreements between employers and employee representatives, either on an industry-wide basis or within an individual enterprise.

Conditions of eligibility

The two groups that are granted educational leave of absence under national laws are (a) members of Works' Councils and (b) young workers.

a) Members of Works' Councils

All organisations that employ more than 100 people are required, by law, to set up a Works' Council. Since the 19th June 1974 an amendment to the law on Works' Councils was passed which involves the introduction of a levy imposed on employers to support the education and training of members of these councils(1). A new institute has been created - the joint Counselling Institute for Works' Councils (G.B.I.O.) - responsible for two tasks: (i) the co-ordination of

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1) Gegevens over scholing en vorming van ondermemingsraadleden: ontleend aan S.E.R. - advies, stukken betrekking hebbend op schriftelijke behandeling wetsonwerp, Handelingen Tweede Kamer tekst schriftilijke Vragen Kamerlid van Gorkum, aan minister-president den Uyl endiens antwoord.

education and training activities and (ii) providing advice, information and documentation to the Works Councils. Courses, which are also open to future candidates on the lists of Works' Councils and to members of Committees from the Works' Councils are five-day residential basic courses and will include the law on Works' Councils and other relevant legal provisions and regulations concerning them, and company law, the function of Works' Councils and the organisation, goals and policies of public companies.

b) Young Workers

Full-time education is compulsory in the Netherlands until the age of 15 years. Approximately 60 per cent of 15-year-olds go on to further study while 40 per cent go directly into the labour force. The Netherlands has a system of part-time compulsory education for those 15- and 16-year-olds in the labour force. Since 1st August 1974 all 15-year-olds must attend two days of compulsory education each week and all 16-year-olds one day of compulsory education per week. Compulsory part-time education, which will be greatly extended, is a temporary measure. A compulsory full-time education for all of the 15-18 age group is expected in the future. It is possible to fulfil the present compulsory part-time education requirements through different schemes. The most important of these are

i) "educational work for young people" ("Vormingswerk" in Dutch) which stresses the affective aspects of personality formation and attitude change rather than cognitive learning, and

ii) the apprenticeship system. This involves vocational training given in the company together with supplementary general and technical education in a school. These schemes extend into age groups not subject to partial compulsory education; thus apprentices aged 17-21 years also spend one day per week in a school.

For young workers over the age of 16 and not employed under an apprenticeship contract, other possibilities exist. Those under 18 may have the possibility under some collective agreements of one day per week leave for educational purposes. If they wish to take advantage of this provision, their legal guardian has to request the permission of the employer. For the largest industrial sectors (those employing more than 5000 people) 33 out of 57 collective agreements give this possibility. In most cases one day a week is offered with maintenance of salary.

There are no national laws on educational leave of absence for adult workers in industry or in the government. Where such arrangements exist they are as a result of negotiated agreement.

c) Adult Workers in Industry

The information available on educational leave of absence for adults in industry is restricted to that contained in collective agreements (C.A.O.s) for large branches of industry (i.e. with more than 5000 employees) and in study provisions within large enterprises. Collective agreements for branches of industry cover about 1.7 million employees, almost half the employed work force. In the 57 C.A.O.s negotiated for industry branches, it is found that 38 include agreement for the granting of educational leave for the completion of a professional examination(1). This leave varies with the time necessary to follow a course - in some cases a maximum of five days. Only in two collective agreements (those for woodworking factories and painters' shops) is the explicit possibility for leave for the pursuit of an occupational training involved. In two C.A.O.s (for the banking and insurance sectors and in the latter only for employees of less than 23 years of age) educational leave is granted to make participation in a course possible by allowing an employee to leave work early (without loss of salary) in order to attend an evening course if the employer considers the course important for occupational efficiency in the firm.

There appears to be just one branch of employment - architecture - that has a C.A.O. formulated broadly enough to include cultural education. Here the employee has the right to a short leave up to five days per year for educational activities not concerned with vocational education. It should be recognised, however, that this agreement covers a sector with only 7700 employees, most of whom are highly qualified.

In 33 of the 57 industry sector C.A.O.s there is the opportunity for educational leave for representatives of trade unions. Arrangements for this category also generally include leave for participation in formally-prescribed meetings of the trade union. In principle, leave is given for the required period of time. Where maxima are stated they vary from one to five days per year.

Information is available on study provisions for 12 large enterprises (private companies and quasi-governmental institutions). These provisions apply to approximately 380,000 employees. In general it can be stated that an employee may be given educational leave if the study is important for the enterprise. Half of the available regulations involve explicit arrangements for leave to follow vocational training varying from three half-days per week to one half-day per 14 days. Leave for taking examinations is rarely explicitly mentioned. Where it is covered by the regulations it is usually for the time necessary to take the examination. The most

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1) Loonbureau: Kort verzuim bepalingen met doorbetaling van loon/salaries in bedrijkstak CAOs met 5000 of moor worknemers, Den Haag, July 1974.

favourable known is leave for a maximum of 10 days per year for preparation for an examination.

Amongst the twelve companies, a few have provisions for educational leave for general education. Hoogovens, the steel manufacturers, allow their employees to take part in general educational courses at a Folk High School. This involves a maximum of 30 employees per course (this is approximately one in every thousand employees). Two quasi-governmental industries provide similar opportunities. The electricity industry in the provinces of Groningen and Drenthe allows one per cent of its employees, with a maximum of 17 persons, to attend general education courses. Anyone who has participated has to wait three years before becoming eligible again. The Dutch Post, Telegraph and Telephone Company (P.T.T.) applies provisions on a decentralised basis. A maximum of 20 employees per division may participate in general education courses at any one time.

d) Government Employees

The central government allows educational leave of absence as long as the training to be followed is considered important to the service. It is a rule that, at the most, one day a week may be so granted.

For local authorities, there is a model regulation for the training of personnel and the provision of study costs. On the basis of this model, the mayor and aldermen can authorise study leave if a direct or indirect interest of the municipality is thus being served. This regulation not only covers vocational training but may include courses of general education e.g. part-time secondary schooling. The leave is a maximum of one day per week for courses connected with public service. For more general courses different arrangements exist: one half-day per four weeks for courses at lower level; one half-day per two weeks for courses at intermediate level and one half-day per week for courses at advanced level.

The Dutch provincial authorities do not have a model regulation like the municipalities. A sample of the regulations again illustrates a great diversity. Leave is usually allowed for both vocational and more general education. The maximum leave is normally eight hours per week (in working time) and two half-days (outside of working time).

Several other particularly interesting provisions for leave for general education and cultural development exist for government employees. The central government had a provision introduced in 1964 which offered civil servants the possibility of participating in general courses at Folk High Schools. Although it seems little use is made of this provision, the selection procedure for participants is very interesting. The intention is that the majority of the participants should come from the lower levels, the minority from the intermediate levels, while only a small number of high level civil servants is expected to take part.

One local authority - Amsterdam - under a provision introduced in 1952 also supports this type of course. A maximum of one per cent of employees can participate at any one time and at present up to 101 people can be considered each year.

Since 1953 educational leave has existed for officials of the organisations of government employees. Furthermore, since 1972 the Government has also contributed financially to the funding and to the cost of this education and training which is organised by the labour movement itself. The leave can amount to 26 days per year (one half-day per week).

Financing

The financing of educational leave of absence is as varied as the existing provisions themselves. The major financial arrangements for each group are given below:

a) Works' Councils

The training and education of members of Works' Councils are partly supported by a levy on those firms that are legally required to have them (i.e. companies with more than 100 employees). The levy is .014 per cent of the payroll of the company. This income is placed at the disposal of the new institute previously mentioned - the joint Counselling Institute for Works' Councils (G.B.I.O.) - which will finance the trade union centres providing the residential courses for members of the Works' Councils on the basis of accounted costs. 10,000 of the total of 50,000 members of enterprise councils could participate in these courses per year. The costs are estimated at NFl.3.5 million including the cost of the G.B.I.O. (NFl.1 million). Of this total 2/3 will be centrally funded and 1/3 directly from the enterprises. The loss of income and travel costs will also be paid by the enterprise.

b) Young Workers

For those 15- and 16-year-olds subject to compulsory part-time education but not employed as apprentices, the employer is not obliged to maintain wages during the time spent in compulsory education. It is however the employer's responsibility to ensure that a young person subject to this law is not present at work during the hours when the courses are given. The responsibility for ensuring that the young person actually attends the courses rests with the parents. Partial compensation for the loss of income due to his attendance at compulsory part-time education is paid, in the form of a child allowance, to the head of the family.

For those young workers engaged under an apprenticeship contract (including the 15- and 16-year-olds) the employer is required to maintain their salaries for the one day per week (in the case of 15-year-olds, two days per week) spent following courses.

Young workers of 17 and 18 who are not subject to compulsory part-time education but wish to follow courses, and whose employers agree that they may do so, normally find that the weekly educational leave is granted with maintenance of salary.

c) Adult Workers

Educational leave of absence for adult workers covered by the provisions of either the industrial sector or individual companies may be granted with or without pay, salary maintenance and other financial contributions. It is generally true to say that if it is the employer who proposes a certain kind of vocational training to an employee, or if the employer feels that the course proposed by an employee is either necessary or advantageous to the interests of company, educational leave will be granted with maintenance of salary. It can occur that a certain percentage (e.g. 25 per cent) of the salary costs resulting from educational leave are accounted for as a steady debt, for which a certain part of the monthly salary is deducted (e.g. 1/24 per month). These agreements, which include provisions for leave for general education, generally include maintenance of salaries although the participating employees may be asked to contribute to the course fees and perhaps pay their own travel expenses.

In the 33 C.A.O.s for branches of industry where there are provisions for leave for trade union education, in five cases wages are not maintained, in one case they may or may not be, but in all the other cases wages are assured during the leave of absence. The costs involved in such training and education are paid from funds for the different industrial sectors. Employers pay into these funds a maximum of NFl.15 for each trade union member they employ. This fund may only be used, under very strict conditions, for general trade union activities. It can also occur that a certain percentage of the payroll is contributed by the employers. In 18 C.A.O.s there is a reference to such funds of which 10 specifically apply to education and training for trade union activities. The employers' contribution to general trade union activities in 1973 was approximately NFl.30 million.

d) Government Workers

The position here is similar to that in industry. As a general rule salaries are maintained if the courses undertaken are considered to be of importance to government service and course fees and travel costs are normally at least partially refunded. For the courses of general education mentioned previously, salaries are maintained although participants may be required to pay at least part of their course fees and travel costs.

As previously mentioned, the government, in addition to paying the salaries of employee representatives undergoing courses of education organised by the labour movement, also contributes financially to the costs of such education and training. In 1972, it gave NFl.½ million and in 1975 this will be raised to NFl.3/4 million.

Miscellaneous

The regulations concerning young workers subject to compulsory part-time education are rather unusual. The employers may not allow a young person subject to compulsory part-time education to work during the hours in which such courses are given, while the young person may not work during the hours not worked by the other employees. The course hours are thus deducted from working time. This also applies to courses given in the evening. Whether a young worker indeed attends a course falls outside the responsibility of the employer. Even if there is a question of absenteeism from a course there is a prohibition against work. For fulfilment of compulsory part-time education, registration at an institute is mandatory. This obligation falls upon the parents. The appropriate municipality is entrusted with the supervision of the fulfilment of the duty to register.

To meet the reservations of employers in employing young workers subject to compulsory part-time education, the government has introduced a premium of NFl.20 per week for every employee who has to take two days per week off for this purpose.

III. PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

Training Institutions

For the most part the granting of educational leave of absence is explicitly tied to a certain institution and often to a particular type of course. Thus, trade union education takes place in centres run by the trade unions, and Works' Council education in trade union residential centres supervised by the G.B.I.O. which is itself under the auspices of the Social Economic Council (S.E.R. - the principal advisory council to the government in the social and economic sector) and the Foundation of Labour - the consultation organisation for trade unions and employers' institutions. Educational work for young people (Vormingswerk) is carried out in approximately 200 institutions which were especially set up for this purpose. The theoretical part of the training under the apprenticeship system is provided by evening schools for lower technical education, and to the degree that this takes place during the day it does so in the so-called "district schools". In the future, the evening schools (53 still exist) will completely disappear and give way to the district schools of which there are 25 at present. "Vormingswerk" for those beyond the compulsory parttire education age is provided in two types of institutions: firstly the educational institutes for compulsory education (total of voluntary participants as of 1st November 1973 was 4602) and secondly the institutes for educational work for young adults which concentrate on the 17- to 25-year-olds (as of 1st November 1973 the number of participants was 8,919 of which 4,454 were under 20 years of age). The central government and the municipalities have at their disposal their own institutes for study, research and advice: the Government Management Studies Centre and the Institute for Management Sciences respectively. As we have previously seen most educational leave granted for cultural or general educational purposes is linked to courses given at the Folk High Schools.

It is impossible to give an overview of all the institutions for vocational training and the type of courses. A few years ago a government body tried to make an inventory of activities in the areas of training, retraining and post-experience courses in the Netherlands. This was not successful, due to the great diversity in organisational forms, the manner in which programmes are determined, the financing and the recruiting of students and teachers. Lington refers in his report on Adult Education and Training in the Netherlands to more than 100 institutions which cater for "a big variety of vocational courses, ranging in subject from highly specialised to more general courses, varying in length from one day to three years."(1)

Participation of workers

Due to the fragmented nature of educational leave of absence in the Netherlands, it is impossible to get any overall indication of participation or demand. Such estimated figures as are available are detailed below:

a) Works' Councils education: approximately 50,000 members of company councils. It is estimated that 10,000 per year could participate in the appropriate training courses.

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1) Hans Lington: Adult Education and Training in the Netherlands, OECD 1974, p.9 (document).

	Costs per year for courses estimated at NFl.3.5 million. Employers are required to pay salaries and travel costs.
b) Compulsory part-time education "Vormingswerk" 15- and 16-year-olds:	as of January 1974 there were 47,990 compulsory participants. Costs to the government estimated at NFl.173 million.
c) Apprenticeship system:	at end of 1973, 70,111 apprentices between 15 and 21 years of age were registered. Cost to the Government is estimated at NFl.60 million (approximately $24.7 million). No estimate of employers costs available.
d) "Vormingswerk" for those beyond compulsory part-time education i.e. 17 to 25 years.	of 1st November 1973 about 13,521 participants. Costs to the Government is estimated at NFl.4 million ($1.7 million).
e) Trade Union Education - Industry	No estimates of annual number of participants are available. It is however known that in 1973 employers contributed approximately NFl.30 million ($12.3 million) to general trade union activities. What proportion of this was spent on training activities is unknown.
f) Trade Union education - Government:	The annual number of participants is unknown. Government contribution to employee organisations for training and education of officials 1972 to 1974 was NFl.0.5 million ($.21 million) per year. From 1975 NFl.0.75 million ($31 million) per year.
g) Folk High Schools - General Education	Approximately 20,000 people have participated during the last 10 years (i.e. an average of 2,000 per year). Of these approximately 93 per cent appear to be people who have attended courses during working time coming from both industry and government

(i.e. total over ten years of 18,600 average of 1,860 per year). No cost estimates are available.

IV. THE FUTURE

There are several important elements that give indications of the possible development of educational leave of absence in the future.

The recent developments of the 'open school'(1) "educational centres"(2) and increasing government emphasis on training policy in the labour market ensure that the question of the education, training and retraining of workers in the labour force will be an ongoing debate.

Additionally the employees' organisations have taken up the issue of educational leave for the first time in their programme of negotiation for 1975. The desire is that attention should first be given to those groups of workers who have enjoyed the least educational opportunities. In another document - the "Priority Programme 1975"(3) - in which the Labour movement outlines its wishes concerning government policy, the desirability of a policy for the development of a system of permanent education which would include paid educational leave is discussed.

The employers' organisations agree with the necessity of extending education throughout life in the framework of a scheme of recurrent education(4). However, it has been emphasized that a choice has to be made between more holidays, better pension systems and educational leave. The content of the education which should be allowed under such a scheme is described as education chosen by the participant and which may not make a direct contribution to the practical job performance.

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1) The open schools aim to be an opportunity for secondary education and out-of-school education especially for those who are restricted in their development as a result of a restricted education and training.

2) The idea of "educational centres" was first launched in a 1972 report on the planning of adult education ("Planning van het vormings en ontwikkelingswerk met volwassenen, Amersfoort 1972). Their object is co-ordination and integration of the activities already being undertaken in the area of adult education.

3) Nota Arbeidsvoorwaardenbeleid 1975.

4) Onderwijs ... een hele onderneming, Commissie Onderwijszaken UNO/NCW 1974.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN SWEDEN

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The origins of interest in educational leave of absence

Sweden has a long tradition of adult education dating back to the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. The arrangements and organisations within the system have several objectives. The educational associations and the folk high schools aim to further the general educational level of the individual as do the national and municipal adult schools. Another objective of adult education is the acquisition and updating of professional qualifications and skills through labour market training arranged by the National Board of education in co-operation with the Labour Market Board and through extensive vocational training within private and public enterprises. A third objective of adult education is trade union training and the dominant organisations in this area are the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions (LO) followed by the Swedish Central Organisation of Salaried Employees (TCO).

During the 1950s adult education expanded considerably - partly on account of financial contributions from the government for the educational activities of the associations which have expanded correspondingly, particularly those of the larger associations linked to trade union or political movements. This has enabled new categories among the Swedish population to be reached by their activities. Separate Study Circles also received assistance and soon gained general acceptance as a study form. Their activities have continued to grow and in 1972/73 more than two million people took part in them.

The increased attention given to adult education has been mainly motivated by a wish to diminish the gap between young people and adults who have had but a short and inadequate formal education. Another motive has been improved preparation of employees to adapt to economic, social or technical changes. A third force behind the expansion of adult education has been the ever-increasing acceptance of the notion of recurrent education.

The provision of educational leave of absence was an obvious next step in fulfilling these objectives and in 1969 a working group on adult education with the Swedish Confederations of Trade Unions (LO) published a report called "The Trade Union Movement and Adult Education" (LOVUX 1) in which the possibility for individuals to take time off during working hours for studies was discussed.

Discussion of the law

In 1970 the Swedish Employers' Confederation (SAF) asked the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions (LO) and the Swedish Central Organisation of Salaried Employees (TCO) to co-operate in an investigation of educational leave to be handled by joint groups of experts. During the preliminary talks interest focused on the following questions:

a) the right to educational leave;
b) social benefits in the case of leave;
c) short leave in connection with leisure-time studies;
d) measures aimed at stimulating adult education;
e) special educational councils for different work places or for each main agreement.

In the course of these discussions no consensus of opinion was, however, reached on any of these topics. During 1972 negotiations took place between the SAF on the one side and the LO and the TCO on the other, and considerable disagreement between the parties was brought to light. The LO and the TCO broke off these negotiations in December 1972 and a couple of months later asked the Ministry of Education to get the principle of the right to educational leave established by law. Accordingly an interdepartmental task force, headed by the Minister, Carl Lidbom, was formed to propose such legislation and they did so in a memorandum.

It was not until December 1974, however, that a generally applicable law on educational leave of absence was passed. Until then only one sector of the public was legally entitled to be absent from work - immigrants who had the right to instruction in Swedish and general information about Swedish society in working hours, during which time normal salary was paid. The right to educational leave and to salary varies according to the immigrant's needs which may lie between 160 and 240 hours of instruction.

II. THE LAW ON EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE

Conditions of Eligibility

This law, which came into effect on 1st January, 1975, secures the principle of the right of all employees in the public and private sectors to leave for educational purposes during working hours. To be eligible for this, an employee must have worked for his company for six months or at least twelve months during the last two years. This minimum period of employment qualification does not, however, apply to trade union training. The right to leave of absence for educational purposes covers all types of education - general, vocational and trade union. The law does not stipulate a maximum or minimum length of leave nor how many employees from a company can be absent at the same time. Responsibility for these arrangements lies with representatives of the employer and on the employees; resolution of these points will, therefore, be the result of negotiation. The law stipulates that an employer has the right to postpone leave in individual cases but he is required to inform the trade union beforehand; the union then has the right to discuss the matter with him. In cases of more than six months' postponement of educational leave the employer must obtain agreement from the local union. Thus the opinion of the local trade union is of decisive importance in cases of dispute. If either of the parties wishes, the matter can be dealt with centrally, in which case it is the central employee organisation that has to agree with the desired postponement.

The law also guarantees the employee the right to return to his job after an educational leave of absence assuring him the right to a status and income equivalent to those he had before taking the leave. This also holds true even if the employee does not complete the course of education for which his leave of absence was granted.

There is one very obvious omission in the current law: there is no mention whatsoever of any financial provision. This is intentional, for it was decided that the right to educational leave and the right to financial support during this leave were two different questions and should therefore be treated separately. It is expected, therefore, that further legislation will be introduced to the Swedish Parliament in the near future.

Financing Educational Leave of Absence

As already mentioned, the present law is deliberately silent on the question of financial support for employees taking educational leave of absence, and it is expected that a separate law will be introduced to cover this aspect. Here, therefore, we shall look first at the opportunities for obtaining financial support that exist at present, and then at the arrangements proposed which will probably form the basis of the new law.

The present system of financial aid does not allow the individual to study without a considerable loss in income. Even adults with a fairly low income from employment lose considerably on resuming studies. Government aid to students consists of study grants, financial study aids and educational allowances, the kind of aid granted being dependent upon the type of education, the age of the student and his previous occupation. With the exception of the educational allowance, the scale of financial support is calculated according to the needs of the young participants.

When the social reforms on education came into being in 1964, a distinction was made between the system of study grants and the system of financial study aids. This distinction largely reflected the boundaries between separate educational levels. Students at the secondary school level were included in the system of study grants; the system of financial study aids applied to post-secondary education. The seniority of the students was also a factor of importance in that students who had a right to receive repayable loans normally had to have come of age.

Students in secondary schools and less than 20 years old, therefore, are entitled to study grants. This system is part of the general family assistance which applies to families with children in secondary school. Financial study aids are applicable to students 20 years and older in secondary school, as well as to all students in post-secondary education. The financial study aids consist partly of grants and partly of repayable loans. Financial study aids are applicable independent of the income of the student's family.

Educational allowances are granted to individuals who are participating in labour market training for employment reasons. Individuals who run the risk of becoming unemployed, or who have special difficulties getting a job, qualify for such educational allowances. Furthermore, the applicant must be 20 years old or more and be looking for work through the public employment service. The training is also intended to result in a steady employment that could not have been achieved without it.

Handicapped, single parents, political refugees and pupils at national vocational schools may receive educational allowances even before they are 20 years old. A person who is at least 18 but not yet 20 qualifies for an allowance if he is supporting a family; or has had a regular income through gainful employment; or he cannot be trained within the regular educational system; or there are no retraining courses for the new trade in his area. The scope of the training varies as does its duration. The average time is around six months, but it may last for several years in certain instances. The educational allowance consists of a basic allowance, a rental allowance, an expense allowance, a child allowance and a special allowance.

Reforms to this system of financing are being proposed by both the Committee on Methods Testing in Adult Education (FÖVUX) and the Committee on Financial Aid to Adult Students (SVUX). The types of assistance for education which are proposed by FÖVUX are not in the main meant for more comprehensive education; their intention is rather to extend considerably the recruitment to adult education. The assistance SVUX is proposing applies to more comprehensive studies, and it is to be assumed that it will be used mainly by more education-conscious adults. As an illustration of the different types of financial proposals one can take the daily assistance FÖVUX proposes, which would be granted for five days at most during a period of six months, whereas the smallest amount of time granted for the study assistance proposed by SVUX would be half a month of full-time studies or one full month of part-time studies. The different time limits set by the two committees indicate a clear distinction between their proposals.

SVUX's proposal can be considered as an extension of the system of financial study aids. In reality, the special educational assistance for adults proposed is a supplement to regular financial study aids in the form of a separate allowance. Technically, however, it is slightly different from the ordinary financial study aids. SVUX proposes that, to qualify for the special financial assistance for adults, a certain minimum time of employment should have been served. This has been set at five years of work experience. The scope of this experience is restricted in that the individual should have had a pension-bearing income during each of the five years in conformity with the law on general insurance. A year of child-care of children under 10 years of age may be substituted for a year of pension-bearing income, and a maximum of three years of child-care is proposed as a substitute for three years with pension-bearing income. SVUX proposes that the special study assistance for adults should amount to 150 per cent of the present financial study aids. Such an increase in study assistance by 50 per cent would result in an increase of the monthly grant to S.Kr.2,000 which is a net income per month corresponding to about S.Kr.35,000 in gross income per annum. SVUX also proposes that the increase in the study assistance should be made as a grant so that it would not result in increasing debts for the student. It is further proposed that study assistance be granted on one of three scales, depending on the number of years the student has spent on the labour market.

According to SVUX, students who are receiving study assistance for adults should have the right to a repayable financial study loan. This would correspond approximately to the sum granted as a repayable loan in the present system of financial study aids. An important difference in relation to ordinary financial study aids is the proposal that no account is to be taken of the income or capital of the spouse when granting repayable financial study aids.

In the present system of financial study aids there are two rules that govern the right to study assistance on a time basis. According to the first rule, financial study aids can only be granted over a maximum period of 16 semesters. The second rule implies that study means cannot be granted when an applicant is more than 45 years old. Behind these rules are two main motives: the first is to avoid the possibility of a student incurring a larger debt than he can manage to repay, the second to prevent very lengthy studies. It is SVUX's suggesion that the present regulations be replaced by a rule that would regulate the amount of the repayable financial study aid in relation to the total debt of the student and the time allowed for its repayment. The Committee therefore proposes that the age limit for the right to financial study aids be raised to 60 years. A person who has used his maximal right to repayable financial study aids has the possibility of obtaining such aids again later if he has fulfilled his repayment responsibilities.

SVUX proposes that a distribution of study assistance for adults be made according to the different educational levels, and that priority should be given to the lowest. The reason for this is a desire that the older generation with a shorter education should be reached first.

The special study assistance for adults should enable full-time or comprehensive part-time studies among adults for whom the present study assistance is inadequate. This would appear to establish two principles for the selection of applicants: for the special study assistance, first, that study assistance for adults should not be granted to those who can equally well, or better, carry out studies in their leisure hours, and second, that it should not be granted to individuals for whom ordinary financial study aids are judged to be adequate.

In addition to the arrangements for people undertaking the longer courses of study, FÖVUX proposes the following:

a) hourly assistance of S.Kr.10 per hour of instruction for study circle participants who take time off to attend courses and in so doing incur a loss of income. The hourly assistance is intended to constitute a standard compensation for loss of income.

The number of hours of tuition for which this assistance will be paid should be at least 10 and at the most 35 for one person during two consecutive quarters.

b) daily assistance comprising an income allowance and a boarding allowance for persons attending short special courses at a folk high school. An income allowance of S.Kr.60 per day of study would be paid to participants in special courses who take time off to attend them and in so doing incur a loss of income. The income allowance is intended to represent a standard compensation for loss of income. The number of days of instruction for which this allowance can be paid should be at least two and at the most five for one person during two consecutive quarters. The boarding allowance of S.Kr.60 per day of study would be paid to participants in special courses who incur the expense of staying in a boarding school or for travel in connection with the courses. The boarding allowance should be regarded as a standard rate of compensation for these expenses, and the number of days it would be paid would be the same as those proposed for daily assistance.

Since working hours constitute the most difficult obstacle to outside study in the case of shift workers, they should be given priority when allowances are distributed. There are, however, very good reasons for paying financial assistance of the kinds suggested to other employees too, particularly those with heavy and tiring work. Therefore, in principle, all adults should be entitled to financial assistance for study. For the next few years, however, such assistance will probably be restricted mainly to the groups given the higher priorities.

Recommendations of the FÖVUX Committee - Out-reaching activities

The law on Educational Leave makes no specific reference to the "out-reach" work that is being done in Sweden, but the existence of the law of July 1974 on the position of the union representative at the place of work and the out-reach activities of FÖVUX form the real basis for the system of adult education on which the new law rests.

The intention of the law of 1st July, 1974 regularising the position of the trade union representative at the place of work is to support the kind of union work that in the past has helped to realise reforms in working life. According to the law, the union study organiser is thus allowed to engage in out-reach activities during working hours while still on the pay-roll. The vital importance of the study organiser in recruiting people for adult education stands out clearly in FÖVUX's programme of work.

The FÖVUX Committee was appointed by the Swedish Government in 1970 to examine and evaluate the various means that might remove the obstacles preventing adults with short and inadequate schooling from taking part in adult education. The Committee's work would thus be helpful in the design of reforms that would enable adults with short education, low incomes and few opportunities of cultural development to make use of the existing educational resources.

Behind the appointment of FÖVUX lay the initiative of the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions and the Workers' Educational Association who, in a joint document sent to the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs in 1969, pointed out that adult education, as it had been conducted, had primarily benefited the young and relatively well-educated. They therefore proposed the introduction of an experimental scheme that would be directed towards those with the least education. FÖVUX has been at work on this, co-operating with the Confederation of Trade Unions and the Salaried Employees' Educational Association, since 1970. The principle education form under investigation has been the study circle, but during the fourth and fifth years of the experiment courses at folk high schools have also been included in the scheme. The participants in the study circles and in the courses at the folk high schools have been recruited through out-reaching activity at various places of work and, since the second experimental year, in the residential areas. After presenting two sub-reports under the title "Out-reaching Work for Study Circles in Adult Education" (Uppsökande verksamhet för cirkelstudier inom vuxenutbildningen SOU 1973:9), the Committee issued its main report "Extended Adult Education" (Vidgad vuxenutbildning SOU 1974:54) towards the end of 1974. This gives an account of the third and fourth year's work and discusses possible reforms in out-reaching work, study circles, courses at folk high schools and study assistance.

Out-reaching work is a form of selective recruitment for further studies. Its principle component is personal contact between the study organiser and the potential participant in a study circle or course. Such conversations may be supplemented by informative material, telephone calls and other measures designed to remove obstacles to study.

The experimental activities of FÖVUX indicate that a large proportion of those with only a brief sch[illegible]ng can be recruited if the out-reaching work is conducted correc[illegible] and obstacles are in fact eliminated. When a great, suppressed need for education has been present and decisive obstacles have been eliminated by advantageous enrolment conditions - e.g. when shift workers employed in industry and personnel working under duty rosters in nursing institutions have been offered the opportunity to study during paid working hours - the proportion of people applying to join a course has totalled more than two-thirds of those contacted.

It was decided that, where possible, the study organisers should themselves belong to the target group they were approaching or at least have a similar background to its members. From this follows the principle that out-reaching personnel should be recruited from the popular movements, e.g. trade unions, political organisations and other non-profit-making organisations connected with the various study associations. The popular movements also have very valuable contacts with people who have had only brief schooling and who are not active in club activities. The validity of this principle has been confirmed through the exceptionally satisfactory results that, among others, the trade unions and the local handicapped associations have achieved in their out-reaching work.

In general, FÖVUX has succeeded well with recruiting at places of work. One of the reasons for this is probably that trade union study organisers have been used in out-reaching work. In the opinion of the Committee, such work should indeed be organised by the trade unions, possibly in co-operation with the study associations with which they are connected. This also applies to the training of study organisers. It is desirable that both their training and recruiting work can be conducted during paid working hours. FÖVUX's wishes in this respect have been met by the law establishing the position of trade union representatives at the place of work. The Committee assumes that the rights stipulated in the law regarding out-reaching work and the training of study organisers during paid working hours will also be included in any collective agreements that may be negotiated so that these regulations may be implemented in full.

The FÖVUX financial proposals are limited to the out-reach activities of the trade unions where, it is felt, personal allowances should act as incentives for participation in study circles and should thus be offered to those contacted during recruitment. The trade unions should therefore apply for study allowances for a stated number of hours or days before the recruitment of participants begins. Everyone belonging to a target group and having the necessary priority should have the chance to acquire a study allowance. If an applicant has not been able to obtain one, he should have his case considered directly by the distributing organisation. In other words, this allowance should be available on individual application in parallel with the collective distribution.

FÖVUX proposes that decisions on the local distribution of study allowances should be reached by a politically composed municipal board, normally the board of education. Before this board reaches any decision it must first hear the opinion of the study allowance council (see above). This will facilitate the coordination of study planning at places of work, for the trade union representatives in the study allowance council are assumed to have the best knowledge of local educational and labour market conditions relevant to the target group.

III. BALANCE SHEET

Courses Offered

The study circles have proved to be a very suitable means of education for adults with only brief former schooling. In the study circle the pace of the course and its content can be adapted to the participants' needs. At present the educational associations do not have the economic means to offer free courses. FÖVUX, for its part, considers it unreasonable that study circle courses, which are largely geared to those with little previous schooling, should be subjected to fees, while the greater part of education in the community (including, for example, municipal adult education and university education) is free. The elimination of fees, would, in the Committee's opinion, be of great value from the point of view of recruitment. It can be especially important for people who are not accustomed to studying, and therefore hesitant about it, to learn that the courses will not cost them anything. In principle, courses should be free of charge, and economic circumstances must not dictate the form of study selected by an adult student. The Committee proposes that government assistance to the study circles be increased so that those of average cost should in the near future be offered to the participants free of charge.

Like the educational associations, the folk high schools originated as a branch of adult education parallel with the ordinary school system. The special courses they offer, which are growing in scope, have proved very suitable as a supplement to study circle courses and FÖVUX has arranged for them to be combined experimentally. Both participants and circle leaders have found these special courses extremely stimulating. Many considered the boarding school form a positive experience. The participants could concentrate on their studies and also find opportunity to get to know other participants, circle leaders and teachers. The special courses were also a success in educational terms.

Co-operation with educational associations is a normal part of the activities of the folk high schools. On the basis of experience gained in the experimental scheme, FÖVUX has drawn attention to the great possibilities of development that the combination of study circle courses and folk high school courses can offer. To facilitate arrangements and to extend the possibility of adapting special courses to the requirements and wishes of the students, FÖVUX suggests that the special courses organised in combination with study circle activities should be conducted outside the folk high school premises and that they should last no more than a week and no less than two days.

Participation

There are, of course, no statistics available on the participation rates under the new law of educational leave of absence because it only became operative on 1st January, 1975. Figures that may give some indication of the potential public for educational leave of absence, however, are those pertaining to study circles, municipal adult schools, national adult schools and folk high schools.

STUDY CIRCLES

Year	Participants	No. of Circles
1970/71	445,799	47,333
1971/72	643,734	69,472
1972/73	716,225	79,779

The number of circles and the number of participants in different areas of study in 1972/73 can be seen from the table below:

Subject	Participants	No. of Circles
Religion, psychology	9,858	1,115
Languages	367,289	41,782
Literature, art, film, theatre	2,330	259
Music	98	11
History, geography	925	95
Social science, law	261,671	27,672
Technology, industry, communications	11,580	1,319
Economics, business, science, medicine, sports	30,666	3,860
Total	716,225	79,779

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics No. U 1973:32

During the late 'sixties an increased interest in extending adult education was noticeable in Sweden. In 1965 a committee investigating the organisation of the upper integrated secondary school proposed that certain changes be made in the programme of the evening secondary school. As a consequence the central government's subsidies to the municipalities increased, which resulted in a rapid expansion of municipal adult schools. Before 1967 evening courses at secondary school level were being offered in about 30 municipalities. In 1970 there were municipal adult schools in 324 out of a total of 464 municipalities. By now all municipalities have adult schools.

The number of pupils in these municipal adult schools increased rapidly up to 1970 but thereafter it has declined, largely on account of a reduction in the number of new pupils. In fact, the total number of pupils in municipal adult schools decreased by 5 per cent between 1970 and 1973. The table below illustrates this.

Year	Courses at the upper level of compulsory school	Courses at the upper secondary school level	Vocational education
1970	22,926	24,241	70,889
1971	17,575	19,748	55,905
1972	14,376	17,839	42,771
1973	13,022	17,287	38,936

The function of municipal adult education was for a long time simply to offer instruction at secondary school level. In recent years another task has been given it, namely to activate those individuals who have had the shortest previous education. To this end, special government grants for instruction at compulsory school level are on offer.

At the two national schools for adults, in Härnösand and Norrköping, instruction follows the nationwide curriculum for grades 7-9 of the compulsory school and of the subjects taught in the secondary schools (Johansson, Berndt, 1973). The teaching combines correspondence courses with classroom instruction - what is known as the "alternating course" system. According to the National Board of Education, about 3,760 individuals have participated in courses at secondary school level and around 960 in courses at compulsory school level.

The folk high schools are in many respects different from other forms of adult education. They aim to provide a good general background in the liberal arts, often from some specific viewpoint. Some indeed have special subjects in their curriculum, such as the mass-media or the study of developing countries. Special education for youth leaders and study circle leaders is also in the curriculum.

The folk high schools put on Winter Courses and so-called Subject Courses. The Winter Courses run from 22 to 34 weeks, and are generally divided into three grades. The curriculum varies from one to another. Only music is compulsory in all grades. Broadly, the courses offered are comparable with the last three grades in the 9-year compulsory school or a vocational school. In some instances studies at a folk high school have enabled students to gain acceptance at a university or a professional school. The Subject Courses vary in length from a couple of days to 34 weeks or more and are concentrated around a particular topic or group of topics. The content varies considerably. In 1973 there were 108 folk high schools and seven branch schools. Government grants cover the cost of salaries for teachers, school leaders and certain other employees, and pay for teaching equipment.

Financial Arrangements

The cost estimates for the proposals put forward by FÖVUX and SVUX are as follows:

FÖVUX: the costs for the reforms proposed by FÖVUX over the next five years are S.Kr.95.3 million, S.Kr.136.3 million, S.Kr.178.3 million, S.Kr.211.9 million and S.Kr.245.8 million respectively.

It has been recommended that by the end of the five-year period there should be 143,000 hourly allowances of 35 hours and 60,000 daily allowances of five days. Costs would total S.Kr.50.1 million and S.Kr.27.0 million respectively.

In addition to this, the proposals for improvement in assistance to study circles would result in an increase in government spending of S.Kr.116 million. The new or extended tasks that FÖVUX proposes for the educational associations will also result in increased costs for organisational and educational work. These proposals presuppose that the associations will reinforce their administration, expand the training of circle leaders and so on but, because of inflation and the increased scope of activities, the government grants for these purposes are relatively lower now than they were ten years ago. The Committee therefore proposes that grants for organisational expenses and educational activities of the associations be increased to a total of S.Kr.12 million by the end of the five-year period.

The Committee proposes that all these reforms come into force on 1st July, 1975.

SVUX: the study assistance for adults proposed by SVUX would result in very large government expenditure if the expected demand materialised. In SVUX's opinion a reform in study assistance must be carried out in such a way that there is adequate public control over the cost development of costs. It is therefore proposed that the number of recipients of the special study assistance be limited but progressively increased. The final goal is that such assistance would be a matter of right for those who meet the stipulated qualifications.

SVUX proposes that the extension of the study assistance be restricted to the level of primary school during the first five years and that it should subsequently be extended to the secondary school level. In this way priority would be given to the most neglected groups. The distribution of such assistance for adults over the different educational levels during the first five years is shown in the following table. The figures refer to the number of people engaged in full-time studies during a two-semester period of nine months.

Education level	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Primary school	7,500	15,000	20,000	23,000	25,000
Secondary school	5,000	10,000	14,000	15,000	17,000
Post-secondary school	2,500	5,000	6,000	7,000	8,000
Total	15,000	30,000	40,000	45,000	50,000

It is recommended that study assistance for adults should be dispensed centrally in such a way that every municipality receives a share corresponding to the relative size of its population. Individual recipients would be selected by the local authority who would also decide on the duration of each grant.

The tables below show the total increase in expenditure that would be incurred by the special study assistance for adults during the first five years.

in million S.Kr.

	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Study assistance for adults	87	170	227	256	284
Repayable loans	41	83	113	126	139
New educational facilities	24	47	64	73	80
Total	151	300	404	455	503

Future increases in the cost of resources within the municipal adult education budgets are calculated as follows:

(million S.Kr.)

	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Amount	10	18	24	24	24

In a memorandum the LO (the Confederation of Trade Unions) and the TCO (the Central Organisation of Salaried Employees) presented to the Minister for Education and Cultural Affairs in March 1974 the two organisations put forward the view that the financing of the reforms through a special employer's contribution would be fully justified, not least because the proposed forms for study assistance would only be granted to people firmly established in the labour market. They also pointed out that the form of adult education proposed would enrich working life considerably.

SVUX holds the same opinion as these two organisations on the financing of the study assistance for adults and accordingly proposes that it, and the hourly and daily assistance proposed by FÖVUX, should be financed through some form of employers' contribution.

If this method of financing is accepted the choice lies between changing the scale of one of the existing employer's contributions or introducing a new one. The percentages of the various employers' contributions vary somewhat, but one per cent, for example, produces on average a revenue of about S.Kr.1,400 million.

Before discussing the technicalities of the proposals SVUX states that total expenditure on study assistance for adults by SVUX and by FÖVUX represents a contribution which during the next five years will increase from 0.05 to more than 0.20 per cent of the total salary bill.

The proportion of study assistance for adults which will be financed through the employer's contribution is what remains when tax deductions and deductions for the regular grant towards financial study aids have been made. Furthermore, the employer's contribution should cover the costs incurred by FÖVUX's proposal on daily and hourly allowances. A juxtaposition of the different costs is presented in the table below. The corresponding employer's contributions are also shown.

It is not the task of SVUX to allow for all factors which would be required to arrive at a balanced judgement of the financing problem. In the light of the various points of view that SVUX has taken into consideration, the Committee proposes the introduction of a special employer's contribution. This ought to be paid on the basis used to calculate the contribution for old age pensions. The reason for this is partly that one of the qualifications for study assistance is the existence of a pension-bearing income.

Costs in different years which it is proposed to finance through the employer's contribution.

(in million S.Kr.)

Financial Aid	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Study assistance for adults (SVUX)	72	143	192	215	238
Daily allowance (FÖVUX)	6	11	17	22	27
Hourly allowance (FÖVUX)	10	20	30	40	50
Total	88	174	239	277	315
Corresponding employer's contribution in % of the total sum	0.06	0.13	0.17	0.20	0.22

IV. THE FUTURE

The proposals of FÖVUX and SVUX have not yet been adopted and the question of a levy on employers in order to finance the reforms suggested is still at the discussion stage. Nevertheless the future importance of adult education and educational leave of absence seems assured. The reforms of the last couple of years in adult education, including the introduction of the law on educational leave of absence, have been designed to facilitate the resumption of studies among adults who in their youth received only a very brief schooling. By looking at the national budgets of the last 10 years it can be seen that a positive change has taken place at the core of adult education - a change from an institutionalised activity, having as its model the educational system for the young, to something new that has been designed specifically to suit the needs of adults.

As to the future direction of educational policy, opinion appears unanimous that priority should be given to the extension of adult education. Improved opportunities for large groups of the population to participate in educational programmes, the organisation of the education, study assistance and educational leave of absence are all important matters in the realisation of this aim.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Before the Industrial Training Act of 1964

The Industrial Training Act of 1964 is normally considered as the landmark in the history of educational leave of absence in the United Kingdom. Before the introduction of this Act, absence from work to follow educational courses was almost exclusively confined to young workers who followed part-time courses linked to their job (e.g. City and Guilds, for craft and technician qualifications).

A second system existed which alternated periods of theoretical study with practical experience in industry. Such courses - called sandwich courses - were available in a large range of subjects (e.g. agriculture, construction, business studies, engineering and hotel and catering operations) and generally led to higher qualifications than those courses mentioned above (normally to ordinary or Higher National Certificates).

Thus, before the Industrial Training Act of 1964, educational leave of absence could be described as having three major characteristics:

i) it was almost exclusively granted to young workers (and in the case of day-release to 15 - 21 year old apprentices and then only to a minority of this population);

ii) it was granted only for vocational training;

iii) it was completely at the discretion of the employer who received no financial incentive to grant educational leaves of absence but, on the contrary, usually bore the costs of both remuneration and any course and examination fees involved.

It must also be pointed out that the years following the publication of the White Paper(1) on 'Technical Education' in 1956 had witnessed a major transformation of the educational scene. This

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1) "White Paper" is a publication outlining the Government's intention to introduce legislation.

White Paper announced the pattern of re-organisation that was to transform the Further Education sector. Between 1956 and 1964 the following important documents were published:

1956	White Paper: 'Technical Education'
1957	The Jackson Report: 'Supply and Training of Teachers for Technical Colleges'
1959	McMeeking Report: 'Further Education for Commerce'
1961	White Paper: 'Better Opportunities in Technical Education'
1963	Newson Report: 'Half our Future' (dealing with education of the 13 - 16 year olds of average or less than average ability)
1959	Crowther Report: '15 - 18'
1963	Robbins Report: 'Higher Education'

This new framework was completed with the publication in 1966, after the introduction of the Industrial Training Act, of the White Paper entitled 'A Plan for Polytechnics and other Colleges: Higher Education in the Further Education System'. Most of these policy documents were to play a significant role in the Industrial Training Boards, which came into existence from 1964 onwards as a result of the Industrial Training Act which received Royal Assent on 12th March 1964.

Discussion Procedure in the Decision Making Process

Industrial training had been the subject of on-going public debate for many years. Thus the government's White Paper 'Industrial Training: Government Proposals', although revolutionary in the sense that it marked the government's rejection of its previous laissez-faire attitude to industrial training, in fact represented the evolution of ideas which had taken place in the United Kingdom over a number of years. This White Paper proposed that the Minister be given the statutory instruments to create an Industrial Training Board for each industry and it was to be these Boards, composed of equal numbers of employer and trade union representatives, that were to be responsbile for the designing and implementing of Industrial training policies. Although during its passage from a White Paper to Royal Assent the Industrial Training Act was to undergo many amendments, these were of a comparatively minor nature. At no time did the 'Government Proposals' meet with serious opposition from any group. Both employers and trade unions welcomed it, and in some measure this must be due to the fact that it involved extensive delegated powers and that it was designed to do a practical job, not to implement an ideological master plan. The Act provided the framework and left it to those most intimately concerned at a practical level on both sides of industry to design and implement appropriate training policies through a process of joint consultation and decision making.

The law laid upon each Industrial Training Board (ITB) the duty to ensure that such training courses and facilities as might be necessary for the training of persons in its industry were available, and to make recommendations with regard to the nature, length and standard of training for occupations in the industry.

By 1969, 30 Boards had been established, between them covering over 15½ million employees (out of a total working population of 25 million) and nearly 907,000 establishments.

The task confronting each Board on establishment was to ask for, and find, a reasonable answer to some exceedingly difficult questions. They had to look at their industry and decide its future size, technological development and shape, and from this they had to derive a manpower profile covering the next five to ten years. They had to compare this guesswork pattern with the industry's present shape and judge whether the current training effort was adequate for its future needs. If, as was the case in most industries, the answer was in the negative, the Board had to evaluate the cost of meeting the shortfall in training need and, in the longer term, to raise a levy which would finance the necessary training. Although the scope of the ITBs was slightly modified by the Employment and Training Act of July 1973 most educational leaves of absence granted in the United Kingdom are a result of the workings of there Boards.

II. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND ITS FINANCING

The important law that allows for educational leave of absence in the United Kingdom is in fact not primarily concerned with educational leave per se but with increasing the quantity and quality of industrial training carried out nationally. The tool that was used to help accomplish this was the Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) established for each industry. The ITBs had at their disposal the levy/grant mechanism (later levy/grant/exemption).

The ITB received a levy from each company under its jurisdiction and could then reimburse a percentage of the costs incurred by a company due to training. The ITBs were responsible for determining the training priorities in each industrial sector and were free to vary the percentage of grant given to each type of training, thus encouraging companies to increase training in certain types of skills.

Conditions of Eligibility

All employees who work in a company which is under the jurisdiction of an ITB are theoretically eligible for educational leave of absence. However, the decision on whether or not they are granted such leave is entirely dependent on the employer's agreement. The object of the two laws previously mentioned (Industrial Training Act 1964 and the Employment and Training Act) are not concerned with the individual right to education but with the quantity and quality of industrial training seen as a national investment. Thus, although an employee may request permission to undertake certain courses, the employer is only likely to agree if these are vocational courses and there is an advantage to the company that the employee should do so. There is no requirement for the employer either to pay the costs of the course or to maintain the employee's salary even if he does grant the educational leave.

The most usual occurrence is that the employer will nominate certain employees to participate in the courses that have been chosen. These courses will be vocational and must be recognised by the relevant ITB if the company is to receive a grant towards the costs incurred.

Several million employees are excluded from the Acts because they work in the armed forces, the Civil Service or in the monopoly nationalised industries, or because they are employed in fragmented service industries where the Training Board structure does not exist. Since the 1973 Act, all small companies have also been excluded.

Financing

As previously mentioned, the original financing of the ITBs was done through a levy/grant mechanism. Some financial support to the Industrial Training Act was also received from the government although it was very little in proportion to the amount contributed by industry. In 1967/68 the government's contribution was estimated at £6.5 million while the ITBs raised over £100 million from industry.

Since the introduction of the Employment and Training Act in 1973, the financing mechanism for industrial training is levy/grant/exemption. Basically, all companies covered by an ITB pay a compulsory levy(1) to their appropriate Board. The company may then file a claim with the ITB for a refund if the training is one recognised and accepted by the ITB. There were three main ways of making grants - to reimburse costs; to pay a fixed amount; and to pay a

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1) In the case of only two ITBs is the levy voluntary.

grant as a percentage of a levy. Boards used the methods which seemed to them most likely to achieve their particular aims. There are no general rules covering the percentage of the costs granted; each ITB varies the rate depending on the type of training involved and the priority which is given to increasing those particular skills. Thus in many cases the percentage of the grant is increased by the ITB to stimulate training, in particular, skills and jobs. Since 1973 the levy the ITB can impose on the companies within its jurisdiction is limited to a maximum of 1 per cent of the payroll. While most Boards previously had levies of 1 per cent or less, the limit will significantly affect some large Boards, notably Engineering, Construction and Road Transport.

The Employment and Training Act also requires ITBs to exempt from payment of levy those establishments that already train adequately to meet their own needs, as judged by criteria set by each Board. Some Boards have already decreased firms' levy obligations or 'disengaged' some firms from levy payment on the basis of an overall judgement of their approach to training.

Miscellaneous

The final form of the Employment and Training Act of 1973 is far from the government's original intentions. In the Green Paper, the consultative document published in 1972 and entitled 'Training for the Future - a Plan for Discussion', the government outlines its intention to phase out the statutory levy and to use a series of selective grants to give stimulus to training in essential skills in key industries. In light of the reaction to this plan and the widespread belief that the phasing out of the obligatory levy would lead to large cuts in the amount of training that industry undertook, the government finally agreed to continue the scheme with slight amendments. In addition, the Act provided for the establishment of a statutory body entitled the Manpower Services Commision (MSC), which is responsible to the Secretary of State for Employment for the co-ordination and management of the public employment and training services, previously run by the Department of Employment, through two executive arms, the Employment Services Agency (ESA) and the Training Services Agency (TSA). In addition to its executive functions the Manpower Services Commision offers advice to the Secretary of State on employment and training matters.

The government are also going ahead with a massive expansion in training facilities for individuals, The Vocational Training Scheme under which 16,650 men and women were trained in 1970 is being developed into the Training Opportunity Scheme(1) which will aim at a target of 100,000 men and women a year and expects to train not less than 60 - 70,000 people in 1975. Trainees will have adequate allowances during training, and if they have to move their home to get a job after training they will receive substantial additional financial assistance.

It can be seen that the government has taken a much more central role in industrial training since the passing of the Employment and Training Act and consequently its financial contribution will have to be greatly increased. The Training Services Agency in its programme 'A Five Year Plan', published in May 1974, envisages public expenditure on vocational training to amount to £85 million in 1974 - 1975 and to £170 million (at 1974 prices) in 1978 - 1979.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

The Training Offered

As we have seen, educational leave of absence is almost exclusively granted for vocational purposes. However, ITBs have recognised as vocational an enormous range of courses at all levels of qualification, including courses that embrace a large percentage of more general education which is nevertheless usually related to the occupational content. Generally, ITBs recognise courses given by either public or private institutions and sometimes even recognise on-the-job training.

Participation

The Department of Employment carries out annual sample surveys of all employees in Great Britain and these show that in 1971 and 1972 the number of workers receiving some form of training at the time of the survey was 1.2 million. In 1971, the Department estimated that 'something like 2 million people are involved in systematic training quite apart from those who are working under supervision in order to perfect their skills'(2). Taking into account the training provided directly by employers, it has been estimated that the total number of workers receiving part-time further education or training in 1972 was at least 2.5 million(3).

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1) This scheme cannot be discussed in detail in this paper as it does not fall within the definition set for educational leave of absence. Participants have to leave their employment before they can be included in the scheme.

2) Department of Employment, "Training for the Future".

3) "Adult Education and Training in the United Kingdom: An Estimate of the Volume and Costs of all forms of Adult Education" by Maureen Woodhall: OECD, 1972. (Document)

The proportion of workers receiving further education or training differs substantially between occupations. The Department of Employment's Earning Survey of 1971 shows the proportion of full-time workers in different occupations receiving training at the time of the survey (trainees were included in the occupations for which they were being trained): about 6 per cent of all full-time workers in the sample were receiving training, but only 1 per cent of unskilled workers were trainees compared with 4 per cent of semi-skilled workers and 10 per cent of skilled workers. The difference between the proportion of male and female trainees was also marked: whereas 11 per cent of skilled men were receiving training, only 4 per cent of the women in skilled occupations were trainees.

Finances available

In 1972, before the introduction of the Employment and Training Act, it was estimated that the level of levy income was £200 million per annum. It should be stressed that this was not the total sum spent on training. The levy was designed to stimulate companies to undertake vocational training and to repay a proportion of the amounts spent to those companies who did so. The Board did not, however, always reimburse 100 per cent of the costs. The companies, therefore, often incurred additional expenses over and above the amount of the levy.

As we have previously seen the Government's financial contribution under the original Act was very small. For the year 1973 - 1974 grants and loans to the ITBs from the Government were estimated at £7.5 million.

Definitive information on the financing of training is difficult to find as the following section from Maureen Woodhall's report shows:

> Another source of information about training costs in industry is the Department of Employment's survey of Total Labour costs in 1968, in which employers were asked to estimate expenditure on training facilities, fees for outside courses, etc., and training board levies minus grants, and also the wages and salaries of trainees while they were undergoing training. There may well have been variations between firms in the way they estimated the costs of the training, and whether or not they estimated the value of trainees' productive work. The results showed that in 1968 in the manufacturing industry as a whole, training, including wages and salaries of trainees, amounted to £20 per employee, or 1.8 per cent of total labour costs (including insurance contributions, SET(1) provision for redundancy payments, subsidised services

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1) Selective Employment Tax - since abolished.

and fringe benefits, etc.) or about 2.0 per cent of wages and salaries(1). If each industry estimate is multiplied by the total wage and salary bill in each industry, it would suggest that the total costs of training in the industries covered by the survey were about £390 million in 1970.

On the other hand, some Industry Training Boards suggested that the total costs of training amounted to 3.4 per cent of total wages and salaries, rather than 2.3 per cent, although these figures were probably not adjusted to allow for the value of trainees' productive work, and the industries concerned were those with a good training record, such as gas and electricity. However, very few firms had accurate estimates of the costs of on-the-job training, and the Department of Employment survey may have underestimated the costs of training not covered by Training Board grants. If so, this would have meant that the levies raised by the Industrial Training Boards, which ranged from under 1 per cent to 3.8 per cent, probably represented less than half the total costs of training in industries covered by the Industrial Training Act. This would be consistent with the experience of the Chemical Industry Training Board, for example. In some cases, such as the Engineering Training Board, the levy represented a higher proportion of total training costs, whereas in the case of the Electricity Supply Industry, which had the lowest levy, and uses this only to finance research and administrative costs, the level of the levy is no indication at all of the actual costs of training. In 1970 - 1971 the total income from levies of all training boards amounted to approximately £200 million so that this would suggest that the total costs of training in the industries covered by the Act would have been about £500 million. Certainly the total levies and grants of the Training Boards do not represent the total costs of training in these industries, since those Boards which gave cost-related grants rarely gave 100 per cent of expenditure incurred, and other Boards gave grants only for specific types of training, and only a few Boards gave grants for on-the-job training. The crucial question of what proportion of total costs was covered by the £200 million has just never been answered.

The Industrial Training Act, however, covers only 15 million out of 22 million employees; in particular it does not cover many of the people training for professional qualifications, since it does not cover insurance or banking, medicine or the legal profession. There are no estimates of the total

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1) Department of Employment, Labour costs in Great Britain, 1968 London: HMSO, p.7

costs of professional training, and those professions which have attempted to collect information, such as the medical profession, have had little success. For the moment, a rough guess of £100 million is probably on the low side. In-service training in the Civil Service costs about £20 million, which represents about 2 per cent of total salaries. Total government expenditure on adult retraining under the Vocational Training Scheme, and through various grants to industry was £30 million in 1970 - 1971. This suggests that expenditure on vocational training was at least £650 million. Some estimates, based on little evidence except subjective impressions of training in industry would put the total as high as £1,000 million which would mean that 3.5 per cent of all wages and salaries in the economy as a whole was spent on training. However, all these figures represent nothing more than guesses about the expenditure of employers on on-the-job training and in-service training. Adequate evidence is just not available.

No figures are as yet available for 1974, the first year of the Employment and Training Act. The exclusion of small companies and the exemptions possible for companies who are judged as fulfilling their own training needs will obviously mean a reduction in the amount of money received as a levy by the ITBs.

At the same time, however, the government is taking a more central role in industrial training, particularly through the TOPs scheme.

IV. THE FUTURE

The Employment and Training Act of 1973 has demonstrated the considerable interest the government has in industrial training. The linking through this Act of training and employment services is particularly interesting, as is the planned role of the new Training Opportunity Scheme for training and retraining workers. Its targets are 60 - 70,000 trainees per year by 1975 and 100,000 per year as soon as possible(1).

Nevertheless, all this is in the framework of industrial training for enterprise and national needs. It does not constitute in any way a right for the individual worker to obtain an educational leave of absence. At present, there are no signs of any fundamental changes that would grant to workers the right to educational leave of absence as outlined in the recent Convention of the International Labour Office.

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1) **"A Five Year Plan" Training** Series Agency, 1974.

EDUCATIONAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE IN YUGOSLAVIA

I. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Principle of Self-Government

In order to understand the system of educational leave of absence as it exists in Yugoslavia, it is necessary to have an insight into the general principle of the system of self-government which has developed since 1949.

Yugoslavia has undergone a complete revolution in all aspects and components of its life and work. The backbone of the consequent changes in economic, political and social development has been the constant endeavour to create conditions that will enable the individual to gain the power to regulate and decide all aspects of his own development and that of society as a whole. The essence of this philosophy lies in the principle of the self-governing organisation of work and life which means that people independently decide on the conditions and results of their labour.

Self-government as it is being developed in Yugoslavia is, therefore, a system of social relations and a social process that serves to decentralise and debureaucratise the system of power and management in all spheres of work and life. With the passing of the Law on Worker Self-Government (June 1950) fundamental measures were taken to remove State power over the economy by placing management in the hands of the workers. Immediately following this, reorganisation was carried out in the municipalities so that they became associations of working people and citizens within which they exercised self-government. The third link was self-government in the structure of representative bodies (of the autonomous provinces, republics and federal government).

The Development of Education and Educational Leave of Absence

The intention to bring about radical change in the education system and in educational policy was expressed in the General Law on Education (1950) and the Resolution on Vocational Education (1960). This trend was given new impetus by the Resolution of the

Federal Assembly on the Development of Education on the Basis of Self-Government in 1970. Consequently radical changes in the education system and education policies in Yugoslavia are under way. The tendency is to construct an educational system that will have the following characteristics:

a) the unity and equality of all forms and ways of education, i.e. the removal of differences and limitations between the so-called internal and the socially recognised education and their systems of qualification(1);

b) the equality of education of both youth and adults, i.e. the abolition of differences in the social status of the so-called full-time and part-time courses of study, or in other words, between those who take studies before entering work and those who simultaneously work and go in for part-time courses of study or take educational leave for studies (without leaving work);

c) completion of provisions for the realisation of the concept of recurrent education, i.e. making provisions for everyone to leave the educational system at any time and to start work, and later on to re-enter education without any obstacles or new requirements(2);

d) completeness of every form of education in the system of post-elementary education, i.e. the obligation of every form of post-elementary education (and every school) to offer a given professional qualification, or the capacity for the performance of working functions in a given occupation;

e) the introduction of the linear instead of the concentric system of teaching/learning content;

f) the vertical and horizontal mobility of pupils and students within the educational system and groups of occupations;

g) gradual merging of final phases of the present secondary education and the initial phases of higher education and the abolition of limits between them, to break off the dualism in the system of education where the gymnasium

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1) The socially recognised education and qualifications have been obtained in full-time education, while internal qualifications have been obtained by workers in centres of education in factories and they have been valid in the given factory only.

2) Herein it is essential that, instead of requiring the pupil to adapt himself to the school, the school should adapt itself to the needs and potentialities of the pupils. Every pupil when he/she attains his/her maximum in a given phase of education may leave the educational system, enter work, and later, when he/she wishes, return to the educational system (Recurrent Education.)

type is assigned to prepare the young for studies in institutions of higher education exclusively, while all other post-elementary schools (professional and vocational) prepare their pupils for immediate entry into the world of work.

In this Resolution it is specifically stated that higher levels of education should normally be attained on the job.

At the 10th Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia, the position was taken that entry into higher education should proceed from work, i.e. the young should join the job for which they were qualified at the secondary level and continue their education in line with their employment.

Two other major reasons have been given for the Yugoslav emphasis on moving towards a system of recurrent education. Firstly, Yugoslavia lacks qualified manpower: it is currently estimated that 18 per cent of posts requiring professional qualifications are occupied by labour lacking the required professional skills.(1) Thus inclusion of the active population, in particular of employed workers, in various forms and types of general and professional education is considered important. Secondly, keeping young people away from active life for long periods of time while they are being educated means - under Yugoslav conditions - that they are being kept away from direct participation in self-government decision-making on essential affairs concerning labour and other sectors of public life.

II. EDUCATIONAL LEAVE AND ITS FINANCING

In Yugoslavia there is a developed system of educational leave and other facilities and stimulation for adults who wish to enrol in some form of general, professional or socio-economic education. The schedule of educational leave and other facilities offered to adults, in particular to those employed, contains:

- free choice of the most suitable shift at their place of work, i.e. the one that will not interfere with the time schedule of courses of study;
- the reduction of working hours for 1 - 4 hours daily, with full salary or the average personal income;
- paid leave for the whole duration of education, with full payment of salary or average personal income;
- attendance at courses of study during working hours;

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1) Basic data from Statistical Yearbook of Yugoslavia 1974. Computation and determination made by Professor Steven Bezdanov.

- paid leave for taking examinations: on average 7 - 14 days for the preparation, and 3 - 4 days for the taking of the examinations;
- paid leave and all other conveniences for absence from work for the preparation and the taking of examinations for university graduate and post-graduate degrees and doctor's degrees; on average, for university graduate degrees 3 - 5 months of paid leave, and for post-graduate and doctor's degrees even more, depending upon the type of preceding preparation;
- assistance in the preparation of papers and studies in seminars, graduation, post-graduation and doctorate theses and dissertations (payment of allowances for research expenses, preparation of projects, printing, etc.);
- provisions for participants in courses of study to merge paid educational leave with regular annual leave to extend the time for learning and examinations;
- paid or provided transport to and from the educational institution for those attending courses of study, or from home to the place of work while attending courses or taking examinations;
- travel expenses and per diem payment for taking examinations away from home;
- free text books and other supplies for education, or repayment of cost after their purchase;
- assistance in taking care of children of those attending courses of study;
- temporary financial assistance in cases where only one member of the family is employed, in particular if the family has more than three unemployed members and when the income of the worker attending the course of study is minimal;
- paid professional and organised pedagogic and didactic assistance in learning and preparing for examinations (preparatory courses for the taking of examinations, or seminars for the preparation of theses for university, post-graduate or doctor's degrees);
- payment of teaching costs, if these are not already borne by the education system.

Such a list of facilities is not identical for all enterprises. An investigation of studies taken by employees in 100 companies has shown that each company has solved the problem of providing facilities for workers to attend courses in the light of its own particular circumstances. In Slovenia there are cases where the personal income of workers attending courses for higher qualification has been raised by 5 - 7 per cent as an incentive towards participation in further education.

Conditions of Eligibility

It is the self-management bodies that decide which individuals are to be given leave of absence for further study. The determining factor is that the learning and skills to be acquired must be considered as an investment for the self-management unit as a whole. The learning involved is almost always related to the work situation (including an understanding of the technology underlying a particular skill and socio-economic education related to the concept and practice of self-government).

In the case of workers who wish to follow some form of education to satisfy their specific personal interests, such facilities as educational leave or complete payment of educational costs are rarely granted.

Financing

This involves both the provision for covering costs of the education itself (payment to educational institutions per pupil/student in the form of the so-called price of education, unit costs of education) and the covering of expenses allocated to workers who attend courses of study, or who are awarded facilities and assistance for education.

By constitutional regulation, for the purposes of satisfying their personal and common needs for education, the workers associate themselves with the education workers and establish the so-called "communities of interest for education" where, on the basis of equality and wider social plans of educational development, decisions are taken for the determination of development policies of education, assurance of financial resources for the realisation of these policies, distribution of resources allocated to educational institutions (on the basis of their results in work), and so on.

By the laws on self-governing communities, the finance for pre-school and elementary education is provided from the contributions made to this "community" by everyone who is employed out of his personal income at a rate determined by the assembly of the community (the lowest rate of contribution, however, is determined by the law). This financial provision is used to cover the costs of education in all pre-schools and elementary schools as well as in all institutions where special classes at elementary level are organised for adults. Besides this provision, a large number of companies contribute supplementary finance (out of the fund of common consumption or out of the income of the whole collective) for the elementary education of workers. Additionally, the commune assemblies finance courses for illiterates and the elementary education of adults. Thus, adult elementary education is free and is financed from the same resources as the elementary education of children.

The financing of post-elementary education (i.e. the whole system of secondary and higher education) is carried out by 'communities' of education that are established on the basis of occupations. Thus 'communities' have been established for such industries as agriculture and food, civil and mechanical engineering, construction, transport and communications, electronics, shipbuilding, textiles, leather and so on. Also included are the 'non-economic' occupations such as community services. On these 'communities' sit the representatives of enterprises and the representatives of educational institutions in which the personnel of the various occupational groups are educated. Finance for the educational institutions integrated in appropriate communities of education is provided out of the income of the enterprises that have established the given 'community' of education (e.g. in the 'community' of education for transport and communications the cost is met by the enterprises in that occupational area). The rate of contribution for education out of the income of these organisations is proposed by the assembly of the 'community' of education and the decision is taken by self-government workers' councils in the various enterprises. These resources provide for the financing of both youth and adult education, on equal terms. If the enterprise (the "working organisation") has its own centres of education, or form of organised general, professional and socio-economic education, it is entitled to keep that part of its income earmarked for education (i.e. it is not obliged to deposit the whole amount in the 'community' of education but may retain part to cover its own educational costs).

Beside these provisions, enterprises may make supplementary contributions to education, either out of the fund of common consumption or other funds and these may amount to as much as 7 per cent out of the personal incomes of workers, following decisions made by the Workers' Councils. An enterprise can, therefore, direct its workers to enrol in various forms and types of education, the costs of which they have already covered. Many enterprises award scholarships to their workers out of these funds.

Application of these principles varies. Some organisations ensure the compensation of income for a worker's attendance at a course out of the total payroll; others pay it out of the monies specially earmarked for education (special education funds); others, again, use a compromise - compensating workers for shortened hours or for complete educational leave partly out of the general payroll and partly from the monies they keep for themselves from 'communities' for education (see above). There is no regulation on these matters nor an obligatory model - the enterprises are free to choose the solutions most convenient to themselves. All the above-mentioned 'communities' established by occupational groups exist also at the level of the republic or region. Here a part of the finance comes from all the 'communities' of education and is earmarked for loans to enterprises that cannot find the resources to support the education of their workers.

Miscellaneous Arrangements

Some of the larger enterprises make contracts with educational institutions to provide educational services to their employees actually on the work site. These may take the form of extended departments or classes in working organisations. The expenses of such arrangements fall entirely to the charge of the working organisation. It is becoming increasingly the case for workers to obtain educational leave for one to two years while preserving all rights of a full-time job. The investigation already referred to showed that about 40 per cent of the enterprises examined offer workers long educational leave with preservation of personal income and all other rights of a full-time job. In about 80 per cent of cases all the expenses for education are borne by the working organisation; in the remainder the organisation bears only part of the cost. Very often the facilities offered depend upon the length of services. Thus, for instance, in 'Galenika' in Zemun (a pharmaceutical products plant), workers with more than three years' service in the factory are offered the largest benefits. Here the paid educational leave might be as long as two years, and during this time the worker receives the same personal income that he had at the time of taking leave, and he is also provided with allowances for all expenses. Workers with shorter length of service (less than three years) have fewer facilities: educational leave for not more than 30 days a year, participation in costs of education amounting to 75 per cent and some other small benefits.

In the '14th October' plant in Krusevac, the workers can obtain educational leave for a period of up to 4 years and during this time they are awarded a scholarship (the so-called working scholarship) amounting to the average monthly salary. The workers who benefit from the working scholarship are also given an allowance for the purchase of textbooks and other school supplies, transport costs, prizes for success in examinations and so on. Between 3 and 5 per cent of those employed benefit from these facilities.

The metal factories in Smederevo provide for paid educational leave up to four years. Compensation amounts to the average personal income of the worker in the last three months at work before starting education. Leave is approved also for workers taking examinations (up to 15 days); for educational excursions (up to 10 days); and for the preparation of seminar and degree theses and dissertations. For the period of leave granted for advanced studies in Yugoslavia and abroad (at most 24 months), workers have the right to personal income and all other benefits normally proceeding from a full-time job.

Many enterprises in Yugoslavia give scholarships for full-time pupils and students in schools and universities. The competition regulations for these scholarships give priority to full-time workers who often also receive supplements up to the level of the average personal income in the enterprise. In cases where workers undertake educational courses without payment of personal income from an enterprise, but benefit from a scholarship at school or university, the enterprise allows them a supplementary scholarship amounting to 50 per cent of the one already held.

Specific provisions for workers' education are made by "Tito's Foundation for Scholarships Awarded to Young Workers and Workers' Children". This foundation was established in May 1973 and a specific social agreement has been signed by the representatives of the Trade Unions of Yugoslavia, the Yugoslav Socialist Alliance of Working People, the League of Communists of Yugoslavia, the Youth League, the Federal Assembly and the Yugoslav Chamber of Commerce. Foundations were established in all republics and regions. Membership is voluntary and lasts for five years. The resources for the realisation of the aims and objectives of Tito's Foundation are accumulated from the contributions of the founders and Foundation members, as well as from awards and donations from other citizens and authorised bodies.

The Foundation finances accumulated in the republic or region are administered by the Foundation Assembly. They are allocated mainly to training for advanced qualifications, specialisation, and other forms of education of young workers, as well as to secondary school pupils and to students in higher schools of learning and university faculties.

The scholarship holders are selected in competitions set up on the basis of definite criteria giving advantage to aptitudes and achievements in learning and work, and taking into consideration the material situation and moral and political qualities of young applicants, workers, and children from workers' families. Thus, for instance, the Assembly of Tito's Foundation of the Republic of Serbia has stated stipulations that the applicants for scholarships may be young workers in production enterprises who are not older than 30 years of age and have completed at least two years of service, children of workers who are employed in direct production and children of retired workers and disabled workers. The amount of the scholarship is on a level with scholarships awarded from other sources in the republic and the region. However, scholarships awarded to young employed workers who enrol in education directly from production work (who benefit from unpaid leave in their working organisation) may be increased, depending on the material situation of the members of the household, so that it usually amounts to the average personal income in the economy of the republic or the region in the preceding year.

III. THE PRESENT BALANCE SHEET

Teaching Offered

Of the total of 4.3 million employed workers in the public sector of economy and non-economic activities, about 530,000 yearly enrol in various forms and types of general education, professional education and socio-political education. There are enterprises where the yearly enrolment in organised forms of education is as high as 30 per cent. The prevailing conception is that of integral education that takes into consideration the worker's need for socio-political and economic instruction (as an integral part of the unity of workers' education) for general culture, and for a wider technical background. He should master not only the working operations, but must also understand the entire technological process. In other words, he must understand the techniques and technology on which he has to take decisions when questions of increased production, modernisation, reconstruction and the like are put on the agenda of the workers' council or other organs of self-government.

Within the educational activities of workers special attention is paid to socio-political or economic education. The idea of socio-political or economic education means, in its wider sense, the equipping of direct producers for self-government. The objectives of this education are to offer a certain fund of general, economic, political, sociological, philosophic, and technological knowledge, as well as certain knowledge relevant to the given working organisation.

Participation Rates

In 1972 educational activities were examined in economic working organisations. The studies were carried out in 94 enterprises covering all types of work and employing 174,000 workers in all, amounting to 7.2 per cent of the total of economic organisations. According to this examination, in the course of 1971 the number of workers enrolled in various forms of education amounted to 47,571, i.e. 27 per cent of all workers employed in the enterprises examined.

DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLLED WORKERS ACCORDING TO TYPES AND FORMS OF EDUCATION (in %):

- courses for illiterates and elementary education	3.2
- socio-political, or economic education	18.2
- cultural, artistic and aesthetic education	6.5
- organised reception and systematic initiation of new workers into their work	13.3
- on-the-job training of unskilled and semi-skilled workers for specialized posts	13.2
- part-time education and training for qualified workers	9.2
- part-time education and training for highly qualified workers	5.4
- part-time education of lower qualified personnel	1.6
- professional advanced retraining and specialisation of productive workers	14.4
- professional advanced retraining of professional personnel at the level of secondary education	3.4
- professional retraining of highly qualified professional personnel	2.7
- training of managerial personnel	2.9
- preparatory courses for workers wishing to enrol in certain schools or university faculties	3.7
- foreign language courses	3.4

Finances Available

No information on the costs of educational leave of absence is available. The only figures quoted are concerned with the resources of Tito's Foundation which are accumulated from contributions of 38,500 members, of which 11,000 are from enterprises, establishments, institutions, local communities and other collectives, and 27,500 individuals. The annual total amount allocated for scholarships is 50 million dinars which provides for the award of 2,500 scholarships equal to the average personal income of workers.

Given the methods of financing that operate in Yugoslavia, it would obviously be difficult to obtain exact figures of expenditure. In a CERI document published in November 1972(1) it was stated that 'about 95 per cent of educational funds are spent on the education of children and adolescents in the regular school system'. This leads one to suppose, if the total expenditure has remained stable or even slightly increased, that finances available for education have been divided in some new way to give a larger percentage to the education of other portions of the population (and therefore

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1) Recurrent Education in Yugoslavia: CERI/OECD, Paris, November 1972 p.21. (document, gratis).

a smaller percentage to the education of children and adolescents in the regular school system). Alternatively, total expenditure may have increased sufficiently to cover all the costs involved in the educational and training opportunities for workers previously mentioned in this report, leaving the total sum of money spent on the education of children and adolescents unaffected.

IV. THE FUTURE

As outlined above a deep and radical reform of the system and policies of education is under way in Yugoslavia. It is based on the concept of recurrent education, or on the demand that enrolment in higher grades of education come more and more from the world of work and that the process of learning be considered a process tied to working. In other words, education is receiving a completely new treatment in society. More and more obvious is the tendency to change the organisation and regime of work wherever possible in order to offer workers greater facilities for education. Thus, instead of a prevailing insistence on the point of view that 'education should be adapted to the needs of work and society', it is increasingly being stressed that society and the world of work should change in a way that makes it possible for man to have access to education without obstacles. In Yugoslavia it is believed that this is not only a matter of revolution in education but a matter of revolution in society for education.

Annex 1

TEXTS OF THE CONVENTION AND OF THE RECOMMENDATION ADOPTED BY THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE

59th Session, 1974

TEXT OF THE CONVENTION CONCERNING PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

The General Conference of the International Labour Organisation,

Having been convened at Geneva by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, and having met in its Fifty-ninth Session on 5 June 1974, and

Noting that Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms that everyone has the right to education, and

Noting further the provisions contained in existing international labour Recommendations on vocational training and the protection of workers' representatives concerning the temporary release of workers, or the granting to them of time off, for participation in education or training programmes, and

Considering that the need for continuing education and training related to scientific and technological development and the changing pattern of economic and social relations calls for adequate arrangements for leave for education and training to meet new aspirations, needs and objectives of a social, economic, technological and cultural character, and

Considering that paid educational leave should be regarded as one means of meeting the real needs of individual workers in a modern society, and

Considering that paid educational leave should be conceived in terms of a policy of continuing education and training to be implemented progressively and in an effective manner,

Having decided upon the adoption of certain proposals with regard to paid educational leave, which is the fourth item on the agenda of the session, and

Having determined that these proposals shall take the form of an international Convention,

adopts this day of June of the year one thousand nine hundred and seventy-four the following Convention, which may be cited as the Paid Educational Leave Convention, 1974:

Article 1

In this Convention, the term " paid educational leave " means leave granted to a worker for educational purposes for a specified period during working hours, with adequate financial entitlements.

Article 2

Each Member shall formulate and apply a policy designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice and by stages as necessary, the granting of paid educational leave for the purpose of—

(a) training at any level;

(b) general, social and civic education;

(c) trade union education.

Article 3

That policy shall be designed to contribute, on differing terms as necessary—

(a) to the acquisition, improvement and adaptation of occupational and functional skills, and the promotion of employment and job security in conditions of scientific and technological development and economic and structural change;

(b) to the competent and active participation of workers and their representatives in the life of the undertaking and of the community;

(c) to the human, social and cultural advancement of workers; and

(d) generally, to the promotion of appropriate continuing education and training, helping workers to adjust to contemporary requirements.

Article 4

The policy shall take account of the stage of development and the particular needs of the country and of different sectors of activity, and shall be co-ordinated with general policies concerning employment, education and training as well as policies concerning hours of work, with due regard as appropriate to seasonal variations of hours of work or of volume of work.

Article 5

The means by which provision is made for the granting of paid educational leave may include national laws and regulations, collective agreements, arbitration awards, and such other means as may be consistent with national practice.

Article 6

The public authorities, employers' and workers' organisations, and institutions or bodies providing education and training shall be associated, in a manner appropriate to national conditions and practice, with the formulation and application of the policy for the promotion of paid educational leave.

Article 7

The financing of arrangements for paid educational leave shall be on a regular and adequate basis and in accordance with national practice.

Article 8

Paid educational leave shall not be denied to workers on the ground of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin.

Article 9

As necessary, special provisions concerning paid educational leave shall be established—

(a) where particular categories of workers, such as workers in small undertakings, rural or other workers residing in isolated areas, shift workers or workers with family responsibilities, find it difficult to fit into general arrangements;

(b) where particular categories of undertakings, such as small or seasonal undertakings, find it difficult to fit into general arrangements, it being understood that workers in these undertakings would not be excluded from the benefit of paid educational leave.

Article 10

Conditions of eligibility for paid educational leave may vary according to whether such leave is intended for—

(a) training at any level;

(b) general, social or civic education; or

(c) trade union education.

Article 11

A period of paid educational leave shall be assimilated to a period of effective service for the purpose of establishing claims to social benefits and other rights deriving from the employment relation, as provided for by national laws or regulations, collective agreements, arbitration awards or such other means as may be consistent with national practice.

Article 12

The formal ratifications of this Convention shall be communicated to the Director-General of the International Labour Office for registration.

Article 13

1. This Convention shall be binding only upon those Members of the International Labour Organisation whose ratifications have been registered with the Director-General.

2. It shall come into force twelve months after the date on which the ratifications of two Members have been registered with the Director-General.

3. Thereafter, this Convention shall come into force for any Member twelve months after the date on which its ratification has been registered.

Article 14

1. A Member which has ratified this Convention may denounce it after the expiration of ten years from the date on which the Convention first comes into force, by an act communicated to the Director-General of the International Labour Office for registration. Such denunciation shall not take effect until one year after the date on which it is registered.

2. Each Member which has ratified this Convention and which does not, within the year following the expiration of the period of ten years mentioned in the preceding paragraph, exercise the right of denunciation provided for in this Article, will be bound for another period of ten years and, thereafter, may denounce this Convention at the expiration of each period of ten years under the terms provided for in this Article.

Article 15

1. The Director-General of the International Labour Office shall notify all Members of the International Labour Organisation of the registration of all ratifications and denunciations communicated to him by the Members of the Organisation.

2. When notifying the Members of the Organisation of the registration of the second ratification communicated to him, the Director-General shall draw the attention of the Members of the Organisation to the date upon which the Convention will come into force.

Article 16

The Director-General of the International Labour Office shall communicate to the Secretary-General of the United Nations for registration in accordance with Article 102 of the Charter of the United Nations full particulars of all ratifications and acts of denunciation registered by him in accordance with the provisions of the preceding Articles.

Article 17

At such times as it may consider necessary the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall present to the General Conference a report on the working of this Convention and shall examine the desirability of placing on the agenda of the Conference the question of its revision in whole or in part.

Article 18

1. Should the Conference adopt a new Convention revising this Convention in whole or in part, then, unless the new Conventions otherwise provides—

(*a*) the ratification by a Member of the new revising Convention shall *ipso jure* involve the immediate denunciation of this Convention, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 14 above, if and when the new revising Convention shall have come into force;

(*b*) as from the date when the new revising Convention comes into force this Convention shall cease to be open to ratification by the Members.

2. This Convention shall in any case remain in force in its actual form and content for those Members which have ratified it but have not ratified the revising Convention.

Article 19

The English and French versions of the text of this Convention are equally authoritative.

TEXT OF THE RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

The General Conference of the International Labour Organisation,

Having been convened at Geneva by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, and having met in its Fifty-ninth Session on 5 June 1974, and

Noting that Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms that everyone has the right to education, and

Noting further the provisions contained in existing international labour Recommendations on vocational training and the protection of workers' representatives concerning the temporary release of workers, or the granting to them of time off, for participation in education or training programmes, and

Considering that the need for continuing education and training related to scientific and technological development and the changing pattern of economic and social relations calls for adequate arrangements for leave for education and training to meet new aspirations, needs and objectives of a social, economic, technological and cultural character, and

Considering that paid educational leave should be regarded as one means of meeting the real needs of individual workers in a modern society, and

Considering that paid educational leave should be conceived in terms of a policy of continuing education and training to be implemented progressively and in an effective manner, and

Having decided upon the adoption of certain proposals with regard to paid educational leave, which is the fourth item on the agenda of the session, and

Having determined that these proposals shall take the form of a Recommendation,

adopts this day of June of the year one thousand nine hundred and seventy-four the following Recommendation, which may be cited as the Paid Educational Leave Recommendation, 1974:

I. DEFINITION

1. In this Recommendation, the term " paid educational leave " means leave granted to a worker for educational purposes for a specified period during working hours, with adequate financial entitlements.

II. FORMULATION OF POLICY AND METHODS OF IMPLEMENTATION

2. Each Member should formulate and apply a policy designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice and by stages as necessary, the granting of paid educational leave for the purpose of—

(a) training at any level;

(b) general, social and civic education;

(c) trade union education.

3. That policy should be designed to contribute, on differing terms as necessary—

(a) to the acquisition, improvement and adaptation of occupational and functional skills, and the promotion of employment and job security in conditions of scientific and technological development and economic and structural change;

(b) to the competent and active participation of workers and their representatives in the life of the undertaking and of the community;

(c) to the human, social and cultural advancement of workers; and

(d) generally, to the promotion of appropriate continuing education and training, helping workers to adjust to contemporary requirements.

4. (1) The policy should take account of the stage of development and the particular needs of the country and of different sectors of activity, of other social objectives, and of national priorities.

(2) It should be co-ordinated with general policies concerning employment, education and training as well as policies concerning hours of work, with due regard as appropriate to seasonal variations of hours of work or of volume of work.

5. The means by which provision is made for the granting of paid educational leave may include national laws and regulations, collective agreements, arbitration awards, and such other means as may be consistent with national practice.

6. It should be recognised that paid educational leave is not a substitute for adequate education and training early in life and that it is only one of a variety of means for continuing education and training.

III. MEASURES FOR PROMOTION OF PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

7. The public authorities, employers' and workers' organisations, and institutions or bodies providing education and training should be associated, in a manner appropriate to national conditions and practice, with the formulation and application of the policy for the promotion of paid educational leave.

8. Measures should be taken, on the basis of plans adapted to the aims of the policy—

(a) to ascertain the current and future education and training needs of workers which may be met by paid educational leave;

(b) to make full use of all available education and training facilities, and to establish new facilities to meet the education and training purposes of paid educational leave;

(c) to take account in teaching methods and education and training programmes of the objects and the terms of paid educational leave, which reflect new needs;

(d) to encourage workers to make the best use of education and training facilities available to them;

(e) to encourage employers to grant paid educational leave to workers.

9. There should be adequate systems of information and guidance regarding possibilities of paid educational leave.

10. Adequate arrangements should be made to ensure that the education and training provided are of appropriate quality.

IV. FINANCING

11. The financing of arrangements for paid educational leave should be on a regular and adequate basis and in accordance with national practice.

12. It should be recognised that—

(a) employers, collectively or individually,

(b) public authorities and educational or training institutions or bodies, and

(c) employers' and workers' organisations,

may be expected to contribute to the financing of arrangements for paid educational leave according to their respective responsibilities.

V. CONDITIONS FOR GRANTING OF PAID EDUCATIONAL LEAVE

13. Paid educational leave should not be denied to workers on the ground of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin.

14. Workers should remain free to decide in which education or training programmes they wish to participate.

15. As necessary, special provisions concerning paid educational leave should be established—

(a) where particular categories of workers, such as workers in small undertakings, rural or other workers residing in isolated areas, shift workers or workers with family responsibilities, find it difficult to fit into general arrangements;

(b) where particular categories of undertakings, such as small or seasonal undertakings, find it difficult to fit into general arrangements, it being understood that workers in these undertakings would not be excluded from the benefit of paid educational leave.

16. Conditions of eligibility for paid educational leave may vary according to whether such leave is intended for—

(a) training at any level;

(b) general, social or civic education; or

(c) trade union education.

17. (1) In determining conditions of eligibility, account should be taken of the types of education or training programmes available and of the needs of workers and their organisations and of undertakings, as well as of the public interest.

(2) As regards paid educational leave for trade union education, the workers' organisations concerned should have the responsibility for selection of candidates.

(3) The manner in which workers who satisfy the conditions of eligibility are granted paid educational leave should be agreed upon between undertakings or the employers' organisations concerned and the workers' organisations concerned so as to ensure the efficient continuing operation of the undertakings in question.

18. (1) Where trade union education programmes are carried out by the trade union organisations themselves, they should have the responsibility for planning, approval and implementation of the programmes.

(2) Where such programmes are carried out by other educational institutions or bodies, they should be established in agreement between those bodies and the trade union organisations concerned.

19. As required by national or local circumstances or by the circumstances of an undertaking, priority in the granting of paid educational leave should be given to particular categories of workers, or particular occupations or functions, which have especially urgent education or training needs.

20. The financial entitlements of workers during paid educational leave should—

(a) maintain their level of earnings by continued payment of their wages and other benefits, or by adequate compensation therefor, as provided for by national laws or regulations, collective agreements, arbitration awards or such other means as may be consistent with national practice;

(b) take account of any major additional costs of education or training.

21. A period of paid educational leave should be assimilated to a period of effective service for the purpose of establishing claims to social benefits and other rights deriving from the employment relation, as provided for by national laws or regulations, collective agreements, arbitration awards, or such other means as may be consistent with national practice.

Annex 2

STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION

(from ILO)

Structure of the economically active population
Structure de la population active

Belgique

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Employers and workers on own account / *Employeurs et personnes travaillant à leur propre compte* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Salaried employees and wage earners / *Employés et ouvriers* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Family workers / *Travailleurs familiaux* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*
(30.VI.1973)								
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	93 092	13 297	**106 389**	11 208	1 138	**12 346**	11 215	20 245
2. Mining and quarrying	420	10	**430**	41 343	698	**42 041**	78	10
3. Manufacturing	84 792	9 964	**94 756**	836 799	307 366	**1 144 165**	10 423	23 859
4. Electricity, gas and water	150	.	**150**	30 241	2 338	**32 579**	5	.
5. Construction	43 100	880	**43 980**	243 185	8 066	**251 251**	4 100	3 000
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	110 398	103 799	**214 197**	229 226	174 654	**403 880**	11 802	49 000
7. Transport, storage and communication	23 000	1 090	**24 090**	245 780	25 897	**271 677**	4 450	3 170
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	5 350	2 930	**8 280**	66 630	38 148	**104 778**	105	195
9. Community, social and personal services	49 040	23 920	**72 960**	380 687	457 068	**837 755**	3 325	11 140
0. Activities not adequately described	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons on compulsory military service	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Persons seeking work for the first time / Unemployed	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total	409 342	155 890	**565 232**	2 085 099	1 015 373	**3 100 472**	45 503	110 619

Denmark

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Employers and workers on own account / *Employeurs et personnes travaillant à leur propre compte* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Salaried employees and wage earners / *Employés et ouvriers* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Family workers / *Travailleurs familiaux* — Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*
(XI.1973)								
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	124 103	3 093	**127 196**	42 992	6 754	**49 746**	.	55 48
2. Mining and quarrying	119	.	**119**	2 062	144	**2 206**	.	14
3. Manufacturing	33 676	4 222	**37 898**	382 716	163 091	**545 807**	.	11 94
4. Electricity, gas and water	54	.	**54**	12 020	1 399	**13 359**	.	.
5. Construction	32 076	375	**32 451**	154 105	8 672	**162 777**	.	7 00
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	52 576	12 228	**64 804**	133 919	139 494	**273 413**	.	25 25
7. Transport, storage and communication	17 430	915	**18 345**	112 992	31 213	**144 205**	.	4 42
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	11 349	1 626	**12 975**	59 886	63 430	**123 316**	.	1 760
9. Community, social and personal services	23 751	10 991	**34 742**	226 172	424 413	**650 585**	.	6 81
0. Activities not adequately described	.	.	.	32 159	7 292	**39 451**	.	.
Total	295 134	33 450	**328 584**	1 159 023	845 842	**2 004 865**	.	112 83

Distribution by status and by industry (branch of economic activity)
Répartition suivant la situation dans la profession et par branche d'activité économique

	Others and status unknown *Autres et situation non définie*			TOTAL				*Branche d'activité économique*
Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	**Total**	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	**Total**		
31 460	...	...	...	115 515	34 680	**150 195**	*3.7*	1. *Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
88	...	...	...	41 841	718	**42 559**	*1.1*	2. *Industries extractives*
34 282	...	...	...	932 014	341 189	**1 273 203**	*31.9*	3. *Industries manufacturières*
5	...	...	...	30 396	2 338	**32 734**	*0.8*	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
7 100	...	...	...	290 385	11 946	**302 331**	*7.5*	5. *Construction*
60 002	...	...	...	351 426	327 453	**678 879**	*16.9*	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
7 620	...	...	...	273 230	30 157	**303 387**	*7.6*	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
300	...	...	...	72 085	41 273	**113 358**	*2.8*	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
14 465	18 900	25 950	**44 850**	451 952	518 078	**970 030**	*24.3*	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
...	1 536	458	**1 994**	1 536	458	**1 994**	—	0. *Activités mal désignées*
.	41 666	.	**41 666**	41 666	.	**41 666**	*1.0*	*Miliciens (service militaire obligatoire)*
...	54 092	41 873	**95 965**	54 092	41 873	**95 965**	*2.4*	*Personnes en quête d'emploi pour la première fois* *Chômeurs*
156 122	116 194	68 281	**184 475**	2 656 138	1 350 163	**4 006 301**	*100.0*	*Total*

55 486	.	.	.	167 095	65 333	**232 428**	*9.5*	1. *Agriculture, [illegible]se, sylviculture et pêche*
143	.	.	.	2 181	287	**2 468**	*0.1*	2. *Industries extractives*
11 948	.	.	.	416 392	179 261	**595 653**	*24.3*	3. *Industries manufacturières*
.	.	.	.	12 074	1 339	**13 413**	*0.5*	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
7 083	.	.	.	186 181	16 050	**202 231**	*8.3*	5. *Construction*
25 253	.	.	.	186 495	176 975	**363 470**	*14.9*	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
4 421	.	.	.	130 422	36 549	**166 971**	*6.8*	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
1 760	.	.	.	71 235	66 816	**138 051**	*5.6*	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
6 818	.	.	.	249 923	442 222	**692 145**	*28.4*	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
.	.	.	.	32 159	7 292	**39 451**	*1.6*	0. *Activités mal désignées*
112 832	.	.	.	1 454 157	[illegible]2 124	**2 446 281**	*100.0*	*Total*

Structure of the economically active population
Structure de la population active

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Employers and workers on own account *Employeurs et personnes travaillant à leur propre compte*			Salaried employees and wage earners *Employés et ouvriers*			Family workers *Travailleurs familiaux*	
	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*

United States (1973)

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	1 681 000	123 000	**1 804 000**	1 185 000	246 000	**1 431 000**	139 000	283 000
2. Mining and quarrying	15 000	—	**15 000**	576 000	56 000	**632 000**	—	1 000
3. Manufacturing	232 000	29 000	**261 000**	15 176 000	6 411 000	**21 587 000**	3 000	26 000
4. Electricity, gas and water	7 000	—	**7 000**	1 086 000	141 000	**1 227 000**	—	—
5. Construction	806 000	9 000	**815 000**	4 807 000	286 000	**5 092 000**	4 000	31 000
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	1 205 000	472 000	**1 677 000**	8 879 000	6 908 000	**15 787 000**	37 000	259 000
7. Transport, storage and communication	178 000	10 000	**188 000**	3 198 000	1 039 000	**4 237 000**	1 000	11 000
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	244 000	54 000	**298 000**	2 047 000	2 295 000	**4 342 000**	1 000	21 000
9. Community, social and personal services	1 358 000	846 000	**2 203 000**	11 027 000	14 481 000	**25 506 000**	13 000	127 000
Armed forces	.	.	.	2 276 000	51 000	**2 326 000**	.	.
Persons seeking work for the first time	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Total . . .	5 725 000	1 544 000	**7 269 000**	50 256 000	31 913 000	**82 168 000**	199 000	760 000

France

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
(1973*)								
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	...	...	**2 028 700**	...	...	**530 900**	...	...
2. Mining and quarrying	...	...	**2 600**	...	...	**190 800**	...	...
3. Manufacturing	...	...	**306 000**	...	...	**5 576 700**	...	...
4. Electricity, gas and water	...	...	**700**	...	...	**170 300**	...	...
5. Construction	...	...	**272 200**	...	...	**1 723 900**	...	...
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	...	...	**939 100**	...	...	**2 482 000**	...	...
7. Transport, storage and communication	...	...	**66 200**	...	...	**1 063 400**	...	...
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	...	...	**158 900**	...	...	**1 021 900**	...	...
9. Community, social and personal services	...	...	**380 400**	...	...	**4 312 600**	...	...
Persons on compulsory military service		.	.	...	.	**294 500**	.	.
Unemployed	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total . . .	...	...	**4 154 800**	...	...	**17 367 600**	...	...

Distribution by status and by industry (branch of economic activity)
Répartition suivant la situation dans la profession et par branche d'activité économique

	Others and status unknown *Autres et situation non définie*			TOTAL				
Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total		*Branche d'activité économique*
							%	
423 000	.	.	.	3 005 000	653 000	**3 658 000**	*4.0*	1. *Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
1 000	.	.	.	591 000	57 000	**648 000**	*0.7*	2. *Industries extractives*
29 000	.	.	.	15 410 000	6 466 000	**21 876 000**	*24.0*	3. *Industries manufacturières*
—	.	.	.	1 094 000	142 000	**1 235 000**	*1.4*	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
36 000	.	.	.	5 617 000	327 000	**5 944 000**	*6.5*	5. *Construction*
296 000	.	.	.	10 120 000	7 639 000	**17 759 000**	*19.5*	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
12 000	.	.	.	3 376 000	1 059 000	**4 437 000**	*4.9*	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
22 000	.	.	.	2 291 000	2 371 000	**4 662 000**	*5.1*	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
140 000	.	.	.	12 398 000	15 453 000	**27 850 000**	*30.6*	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
.	.	.	.	2 276 000	51 000	**2 326 000**	*2.6*	*Forces armées*
.	300 000	345 000	**645 000**	300 000	345 000	**645 000**	*0.7*	*Personnes en quête d'emploi pour la première fois*
959 000	300 000	345 000	**645 000**	56 479 000	34 561 000	**91 040 000**	*100.0*	*Total*

...	...	...	...	...	...	**2 559 600**	*11.6*	1. *Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**193 400**	*0.9*	2. *Industries extractives*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**5 882 700**	*26.8*	3. *Industries manufacturières*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**171 000**	*0.8*	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**1 996 100**	*9.1*	5. *Construction*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**3 421 100**	*15.6*	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**1 129 600**	*5.1*	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**1 180 800**	*5.4*	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
...	...	...	...	...	...	**4 693 000**	*21.4*	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
.	.	.	.	...	.	**294 500**	*1.3*	*Militaires du contingent*
...	...	...	**449 600**	...	...	**449 600**	*2.0*	*Chômeurs*
...	...	...	**449 600**	...	...	**21 971 400**	*100.0*	*Total*

Structure of the economically active population
Structure de la population active

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Employers and workers on own account / *Employeurs et personnes travaillant à leur propre compte*			Salaried employees and wage earners / *Employés et ouvriers*			Family workers / *Travailleurs familiaux*	
	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*
Germany, Fed. Rep. of (IV.1972)								
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	552 000	111 000	**662 000**	186 000	81 000	**267 000**	178 000	835 000
2. Mining and quarrying	1 000	—	**1 000**	323 000	28 000	**351 000**	—	—
3. Manufacturing	424 000	61 000	**485 000**	6 952 000	3 041 000	**9 994 000**	14 000	115 000
4. Electricity, gas and water	—	—	—	183 000	16 000	**199 000**	—	—
5. Construction	159 000	4 000	**162 000**	1 786 000	108 000	**1 893 000**	3 000	24 000
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	490 000	243 000	**733 000**	1 213 000	1 785 000	**2 998 000**	21 000	215 000
7. Transport, storage and communication	80 000	6 000	**86 000**	1 163 000	272 000	**1 435 000**	2 000	10 000
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	143 000	18 000	**161 000**	529 000	552 000	**1 081 000**	1 000	18 000
9. Community, social and personal services	178 000	83 000	**260 000**	2 584 000	2 231 000	**4 815 000**	3 000	45 000
Total	2 027 000	525 000	**2 552 000**	14 920 000	8 113 000	**23 033 000**	222 000	1 261 000

Italie

(1973) (ISIC 1958)								
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mining and quarrying	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Manufacturing	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Construction	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Commerce (excl. banking and insurance)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Transport, storage and communication	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Services (incl. banking and insurance)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Persons seeking work for the first time	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Unemployed	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Distribution by status and by industry (branch of economic activity)
Répartition suivant la situation dans la profession et par branche d'activité économique

	Others and status unknown *Autres et situation non définie* Otros y categoría no definida			TOTAL				*Branche d'activité économique*
Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total		
							%	
1 013 000	.	.	.	916 000	1 026 000	1 942 000	*7.2*	1. *Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
—	.	.	.	324 000	28 000	352 000	*1.3*	2. *Industries extractives*
129 000	.	.	.	7 391 000	3 217 000	10 608 000	*39.1*	3. *Industries manufacturières*
—	.	.	.	184 000	16 000	200 000	*0.7*	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
28 000	.	.	.	1 948 000	136 000	2 083 000	*7.7*	5. *Construction*
236 000	.	.	.	1 725 000	2 243 000	3 967 000	*14.7*	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
11 000	.	.	.	1 245 000	287 000	1 532 000	*5.7*	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
18 000	.	.	.	673 000	588 000	1 261 000	*4.7*	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
40 000	.	.	.	2 765 000	2 359 000	5 123 000	*18.9*	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
1 483 000	.	.	.	17 169 000	9 899 000	27 068 000	*100.0*	*Total*

								(CITI 1958)
...	...	...	...	2 176 000	1 016 000	3 192 000	*16.7*	*Agriculture, sylviculture, chasse et pêche*
...	...	...	...	302 000	15 000	317 000	*1.7*	*Industries extractives* *Electricité, gaz, eau et services sanitaires*
...	...	...	...	4 336 000	1 561 000	5 897 000	*30.7*	*Industries manufacturières*
...	...	...	...	1 813 000	24 000	1 837 000	*9.6*	*Construction*
...	...	...	...	1 657 000	922 000	2 579 000	*13.5*	*Commerce (non compris banques et assur.)*
...	...	...	...	952 000	70 000	1 022 000	*5.3*	*Transports, entrepôts et communications*
...	...	...	...	2 246 000	1 410 000	3 656 000	*19.0*	*Services (y compris banques et assur.)*
.	...	...	...	241 000	179 000	420 000	*2.2*	*Personnes en quête d'emploi pour la première fois*
...	...	...	...	178 000	70 000	248 000	*1.3*	*Chômeurs*
...	...	...	...	13 901 000	5 267 000	19 168 000	*100.0*	*Total*

Structure of the economically active population
Structure de la population active

Industry (Branch of economic activity)	Employers and workers on own account *Employeurs et personnes travaillant à leur propre compte*			Salaried employees and wage earners *Employés et ouvriers*			Family workers *Travailleurs familiaux*	
	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *F. mmes*
Sweden								
(XI.1973)								
1. Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	114 700	4 200	**118 900**	94 100	59 000	**153 100**	…	…
2. Mining and quarrying	200	—	**200**	17 300	800	**18 100**	…	…
3. Manufacturing	20 000	3 400	**23 400**	787 000	242 200	**1 029 200**	…	…
4. Electricity, gas and water	—	—	—	23 300	4 400	**27 700**	…	…
5. Construction	31 600	100	**31 700**	258 700	13 900	**272 600**	…	…
6. Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	34 500	15 500	**50 000**	217 600	234 500	**452 100**	…	…
7. Transport, storage and communication	21 300	100	**21 400**	171 100	52 400	**223 500**	…	…
8. Financing, insurance, real estate and business services	7 300	700	**8 000**	95 200	82 400	**177 600**	…	…
9. Community, social and personal services	23 400	9 700	**33 100**	339 100	633 200	**972 300**	…	…
Total	253 200	33 600	**286 800**	2 003 200	1 323 000	**3 326 200**	…	…
United Kingdom (IV.1966)								
(ISIC 1958)								
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	256 530	27 780	**284 310**	368 690	64 520	**433 210**	22 600	21 710
Mining and quarrying	490	10	**500**	540 760	19 360	**560 120**	20	20
Manufacturing	68 560	34 350	**102 910**	5 721 840	2 593 660	**8 315 500**	1 540	5 070
Construction	209 630	2 060	**211 690**	1 566 130	91 850	**1 657 980**	3 860	6 300
Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services	.	.	.	358 170	52 710	**410 880**	.	.
Commerce	313 230	153 640	**466 870**	1 619 100	1 750 390	**3 369 490**	10 750	53 520
Transport, storage and communication	43 310	2 070	**45 380**	1 301 600	257 980	**1 559 580**	1 210	2 000
Services	332 870	133 250	**466 120**	2 788 560	3 253 530	**6 042 090**	5 200	42 010
Activities not adequately described	5 950	2 170	**8 120**	33 610	24 640	**58 250**	10	.
Total	1 230 570	355 330	**1 585 900**	14 298 460	8 108 640	**22 407 100**	45 190	130 630
Yugoslavia (31.III.1971 *)								
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	1 395 276	426 267	**1 821 543**	235 920	45 949	**281 869**	638 029	1 222 034
Mining and quarrying Manufacturing	.	.	.	1 092 555	481 957	**1 574 512**	.	.
Crafts and personal services	122 201	19 383	**141 584**	206 741	72 278	**279 019**	8 139	4 211
Construction	3 619	158	**3 777**	360 301	33 026	**393 327**	479	229
Trade; restaurants and hotels	10 462	4 496	**14 958**	275 740	230 238	**505 978**	1 132	1 544
Transport, storage and communication	14 685	157	**14 842**	267 457	39 747	**307 204**	365	66
Services (excl. personal services); banking, social insurance	9 817	1 562	**11 379**	496 936	411 940	**908 876**	341	433
Activities not adequately described	1 981	414	**2 395**	17 573	6 375	**23 948**	322	317
Persons working abroad temporarily	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Persons seeking work for the first time	1 417	401	**1 818**	76 564	47 709	**124 273**	695	249
Total	1 559 458	452 838	**2 012 296**	3 029 787	1 369 219	**4 399 006**	649 502	1 229 083

Note : Figures concerning the Netherlands are not included in the "Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1974", ILO.

Distribution by status and by industry (branch of economic activity)
Répartition suivant la situation dans la profession et par branche d'activité économique

	Others and status unknown *Autres et situation non définie*			TOTAL				*Branche d'activité économique*
Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total	Males *Hommes*	Females *Femmes*	Total		
...	.	.	.	208 900	63 200	272 000	7.5	1. *Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
...	.	.	.	17 500	800	18 300	0.5	2. *Industries extractives*
...	.	.	.	807 000	245 600	1 052 600	29.1	3. *Industries manufacturières*
...	.	.	.	23 200	4 400	27 700	0.8	4. *Electricité, gaz et eau*
...	.	.	.	290 300	14 000	304 300	8.4	5. *Construction*
...	.	.	.	252 100	250 000	502 100	13.9	6. *Commerce (gros et détail) ; restaurants, hôtels*
...	.	.	.	192 400	52 500	244 900	6.8	7. *Transports, entrepôts et communications*
...	.	.	.	102 400	83 100	185 500	5.1	8. *Banques, assur., affaires imm., services aux entreprises*
...	.	.	.	362 500	642 900	1 005 500	27.9	9. *Services à la collectivité, services sociaux et personnels*
...	.	.	.	2 256 400	1 356 600	3 613 000	100.0	*Total*
							%	(CITI 1958)
64 310	14 000	3 990	17 990	661 820	118 000	779 820	3.1	*Agriculture, sylviculture, chasse et pêche*
40	18 430	300	18 730	559 700	19 690	579 390	2.3	*Industries extractives*
6 610	18 340	71 100	189 440	5 910 280	2 704 180	8 614 460	34.8	*Industries manufacturières*
10 160	65 410	1 870	67 280	1 845 030	102 080	1 947 110	7.8	*Construction*
.	41 830	800	6 630	364 000	53 510	417 510	1.7	*Electricité, gaz, eau et services sanitaires*
64 270	75 660	43 100	88 760	1 988 740	2 000 650	3 989 390	16.0	*Com., banq., assur., aff. imm.*
3 210	35 200	6 680	43 780	1 383 220	268 730	1 651 950	6.6	*Transports, entrepôts et communications*
47 210	68 260	87 270	155 930	3 195 290	3 516 060	6 711 350	27.0	*Services*
10	46 100	52 940	99 140	85 770	79 750	165 520	0.7	*Activités mal désignées*
175 820	419 630	268 050	687 680	15 993 850	8 862 650	24 856 500	100.0	*Total*
							%	
1 860 863	917	635	1 552	2 270 142	1 694 885	3 965 027	44.6	*Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche*
.	.	.	.	1 092 555	481 957	1 574 512	17.7	{ *Industries extractives* { *Industries manufacturières*
12 350	268	430	698	337 349	96 302	433 651	4.9	*Artisanat et serv. personnels*
708	46	5	51	364 445	33 418	397 863	4.5	*Construction*
2 676	53	79	132	287 387	236 357	523 744	5.9	*Commerce ; restaurants et hôtels*
431	53	6	59	282 560	39 976	322 536	3.6	*Transports, entrepôts et communications*
774	291	88	379	507 385	414 023	921 408	10.4	*Services (non compris serv. personnels) ; banques, assurances sociales*
639	3 198	2 984	6 182	23 074	10 090	33 164	0.4	*Activités mal désignées*
...	441 756	147 412	589 168	441 756	147 412	589 168	6.6	*Personnes travaillant temporairement à l'étranger*
944	1 003	705	1 708	79 679	49 064	128 743	1.4	*Personnes en quête d'emploi pour la première fois*
1 878 585	447 585	152 344	599 929	5 686 332	3 203 484	8 889 816	100.0	*Total*

Note : Les données concernant les Pays-Bas ne figurent pas dans l'"Annuaire des Statistiques du Travail, 1974" du BIT.

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